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MARCH, 1961



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The Social Studies

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As the Editor Sees It

As we scan the advertisements and read the many reports of educational experimentation, we realize that this is the beginning of the age of automation in pedagogy. The teaching machine will solve all our problems of instruction, the computer will analyze and evaluate the results of the learning process, and classrooms and study halls will be monitored by closed circuit television. The school of the twenty-first century, it appears, will require only two adults on the premises—an electronics engineer to keep all the machinery functioning smoothly, and a clerk to program the equipment and mail out the automatically-computed report cards. A supervisor in a central office will detect, over his television monitoring system, any misconduct or inattention on the part of pupils, and will direct them, over an intercom, to press certain buttons on a behavior analyzing machine. This will evaluate the offense with complete impartiality and produce a small card stating the pupil's penalty.

Parents will no longer need to visit the school to complain of the inefficiency of instruction or the relative incompetence of one teacher as compared to another. All teaching programs will be provided by a national board of experts, and about the only ground for complaint left to a parent will be that the machines in their child's room broke down for half an hour, causing an irremediable hiatus in his comprehension of adverbs.

Costs of education under automation will of course be reduced tremendously. A small administrative, clerical and maintenance group will replace many times their number of teachers. This will eliminate not only costly salaries but also pensions, substitutes and the problems of merit rating. Instructional materials will be less costly, since there will be no need for books. Paper and pencils will be kept to a minimum, since

nearly all pupil activity will be of a digital variety, or recorded on tape.

Homework, of course, will not be eliminated. It will merely become more efficient. A personal teaching machine, loaned by the school to each pupil at home, will provide a scientifically planned program of daily assignments. The pupil will punch out his responses, take the coded card back to school in the morning and file it with the clerk, who will run it through the master computer. Thus each day's achievement, in or out of school, will become a part of the child's permanent record, a mechanically accurate evaluation, microfilmed and deposited in a vault.

We admit that this forecast is probably exaggerated. Actually we doubt whether the job of the classroom teacher will ever fall into the category of "featherbedding." After all, someone has to zip up the snowsuits and help decorate the gym for dances. But we are concerned with the way in which American mechanical genius, combined with high-pressure salesmanship, may gull the public into believing things which are not, and never will, be true.

Certainly modern audio-visual aids can be a great help to a teacher. And certainly there are many aspects of a teacher's job which could be automated to advantage, such as attendance records, copying grades, etc. But no machine can replace the creative ability of a good teacher, nor her understanding of why a pupil is not learning as he should. It is so easy to rely on attractively-printed workbooks, on mass TV lessons prepared by someone else, on tests that can be scored on a computer. These sorts of things look so modern and efficient that we are tempted to forget that there is no mechanical substitute for the direct union of one

(Continued on page 120)

Russia at the Economic Crossroads: The Rostow Thesis

LOUIS M. VANARIA

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Walt Whitman Rostow is professor of economic history at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. In the autumn of 1958 he delivered a series of lectures at Cambridge on "an economic historian's way of envisaging the sweep of modern history."

In collaboration with Rostow, *The Economist* in two issues for August, 1959 prepared an abridged version of his thesis which it called "one of the most stimulating contributions made to economic and political thought since the war." *U. S. News and World Report* on November 2, 1959 capsuled Rostow's findings into a feature article with the comment that they "are beginning now to draw attention" and would shortly appear in book form.

The major outlines of Rostow's thesis are concerned with the identification of five stages in the economic growth of a nation. Comparative economic analysis of the nations of the world becomes a useful tool in answering such questions as (1) How shall we assess Soviet economic growth and productive capacity? (2) Where does Russia's production stand in relation to the United States? (3) Will she push ahead in 10 years, as Khrushchev predicts, or will her pace of growth be slower? (4) Will Russia, having attained technological maturity, choose to expand consumption of consumer good and services; or enlarge welfare and security programs and provide more leisure; or pursue external power through military aggression?

What follows is first, a brief description of Rostow's ideas concerning "stages of growth"; and second, the policy implications which this analysis carries for students of international tension, particularly as it relates to U. S.-Soviet foreign policy.¹

Rostow says, "It is possible to place all societies within one of five economic categories"—what we might call "stages of growth." These are: Stage One—the traditional or primitive society; Stage Two—the transitional society, in which the foundations of change are being laid; Stage Three—the society in the crucial process of "take-off"; Stage Four—the maturing society, in which new methods and outlooks are spreading through the whole country; and finally, Stage Five—the society which has reached the age of high mass consumption.

Narrative history can document change but what interests the economic historian most is the process by which these societies react to growth and expansion and maturity. These reactions are not only responses to changes in demand, changes in income—not only the expression of *private* tastes and choices—but also the result of social decisions and governmental policies. For example, Russia has the ability to turn out consumer goods for the masses, but continues to concentrate on heavy industry and armaments. We have been reading recently of a build-up of pressure in Russia for change, but the Russian consuming public fares badly in comparison with ours. Khrushchev promises his people the world's highest standard of living by 1970, but there is really no prospect whatever of the USSR's overtaking the West in the field of living standards.²

A brief review of Rostow's thesis with respect to the five stages of economic development would include the following highlights:

Stage One describes changing, but not

static societies. Production gains are limited by the inaccessibility of modern scientific knowledge. Agriculture typically absorbs 75 per cent or more of the working force. Income above minimum consumption levels is largely spent in non-productive or low-productive outlays—such as religious feasts and ceremonies, monuments, wars, and high living for the land-owning minority who usually maintain a great influence over such political power as existed. Examples of this stage are rare today, but a few can be found among remote African tribes.

Stage Two is the transitional society in which the foundations of change are being laid. Most societies have made the transition to sustained growth under the impact of an external challenge. The small group of which this is not true includes the United States and the older British Dominions. These were created out of a Britain already far along in the transitional process. The usual pattern, says Rostow, is for growth to become self-sustained due to a rise in the rate of investment and the stock of capital per head. The key to understanding this point is knowing whether the rate of investment is low—or high—relative to the rate of population increase. A society that invests more than 10 per cent of its national income will outstrip any likely population growth; and a regular increase in output per head can be assumed. This is the formula. What is necessary to achieve it? New types of enterprising men come forward in the private economy and in government. People are willing to take risks for profits. Banks appear, investment increases in transport and communications. The scope of commerce widens and here and there manufacturing enterprises appear. Among the major countries in this stage are Pakistan, Egypt, Iraq, Indonesia, Nigeria, Ghana, Yemen, Burma, and Iran.

Stage Three is the "take-off" which Rostow says is a convenient name for that short stage of development, concentrated within two or three decades, in which the economy and the society of which it is a part, transform themselves so that economic growth

becomes more or less automatic. Factory workers increase. Incomes and earnings rise. Key new industries expand rapidly, yielding profits for reinvestment in new plants. The rate of investment has jumped from 5 per cent of national income to 10 per cent or more. Argentina, Turkey, India, and Red China may be regarded as passing through the take-off period now.

Stage Four is where a nation reaches maturity, usually about forty years after the "take-off" phase ends, and greatly influenced by the nature of the "take-off." Britain arrived at maturity first in the golden age of Victorian prosperity—say beginning in 1851. But she was soon joined in the Age of Steel by the United States, Germany, and France.

Once the United States and continental Western Europe had completed their take-off, much of the British lead was gone; for their rivals could bring the backlog of technology to bear more rapidly than it had been created. The story is being repeated now as Russia closes the technological gap on the West. China, India, Brazil, and others promise to repeat this process on the older mature powers, including Russia, in the next half century or so. In the mature economy, some 10 to 20 per cent of national income is steadily invested. Output regularly outstrips population increases. The economy extends its capabilities to more-complex processes—machine tools, chemicals, electrical equipment. A nation has the skills and technology to produce anything it chooses.

Russia, Mexico and Poland are in this stage. Actually Russia reached maturity about 1950 and is now ready to move into the fifth stage—high mass consumption. But, according to Rostow, Russian leaders are straining to hold the dam against a flood of autos, refrigerators and houses for people. The reason he gives is, "Communism is likely to wither in the age of high consumption."

Stage Five is the age of mass consumption where the economy has several choices—mentioned at the beginning of this paper—it can expand consumption of consumer goods and services, enlarge welfare and security programs and provide more leisure—

or pursue external power through military aggression.

Britain, France, Germany, Sweden, Japan, Canada and Australia are in this fifth stage.³ The U. S. has been in this fifth stage the longest—since the early 1920's.

Having stated briefly Rostow's "stages of growth" analysis, it is time to examine the implications and conclusions he sets forth.

The Russian government today is now caught up in the three way choice—high consumption? world power? or an advance in their case not to the welfare state but to human dignity and freedom?

The task of the Western powers, obviously, is to make the choice of world domination so unattractive to the Russians as to be unattainable. It must maintain and reenforce a network of alliances which denies the Russians all the routes to a military breakthrough. Just as important for the West, says an editorial in the London *Economist* (August 22, 1959), "The West must strive to make the choice of a high consumption economy (and, if possible, of a freer society) as easy, as natural and as face-saving for Mr. Khrushchev as it can."

Rostow thinks there is nothing unique about Russia's economic growth. There has been no mysterious formula. She followed the pattern of Western Europe and the United States of the pre-1914 decades. Russia's industrial output increased 8 per cent a year in the two decades prior to 1914. The Communists inherited an economy which had already reached Stage Three—the take-off stage.

Since taking over, the Communists have concentrated investment in heavy industry related to military potential. The U. S., on the other hand, has spread its investment over heavy and light industry and consumer goods and services. With this lower living standard and much lower production of consumer goods, the Russians are in effect plowing back into investment a large section of their production—30 per cent—while we in the United States are content with 17 to 20 per cent. Soviet investment in industry as planned for 1959 is about the same as

U. S. investment in industry during 1957, which so far was our best year.⁴

The fact that Russia's Gross National Product—total output of goods and services—is going up at a rate just under 6 per cent a year, as against 3 or 4 per cent in the U. S., is not disturbing to Rostow.

Professor Morris Bornstein of the University of Michigan estimates the Soviet rate of growth for 1958-59 at 6.7 to 7.5 per cent compared to 2.9 per cent for the United States. Soviet gross national production, according to Bornstein, has grown from about a third of the United States level in 1950 to almost half the United States level in 1958. Even if the Soviet growth rate declined to 6 per cent annually during 1959-65 and the United States rate were to rise to 4 per cent in that period, Soviet gross national production would be 53 per cent of the United States level in 1965.⁵

Moreover, says Rostow, "It is in allocation rather than numbers that Russia has moved forward—in missiles and power generally. It has created first-class military status from an economic base some distance behind the U. S. In this sense it has repeated what Germany and Japan did in the 1930's. We should not confuse this selective and purposeful feat with questions of rate of growth."

Professor Rostow expects Russia's rate of economic growth to slow down in the years ahead. The sharp gains of the past will not be duplicated in the future. Moreover, the composition of Russian output will change in the years ahead. This is gradually being reflected, he says, in Soviet allocations in agriculture, where it is now a major goal to increase supplies of better food, and to some degree in housing and television sets. He says, "Ever so slowly, the creep of washing machines, refrigerators, motorcycles, and even cars has begun. . . . As these pressures grow, and the economic structure moves closer to that of the high-consumption economies of the West, rates of growth will also become more alike."

Summing up, Rostow says, "Neither in scale, nor allocation, nor in momentum do

Russian dispositions present a menace with which Western resources cannot deal. . . . The West must remain strong so that Russia will not be tempted to try military expansion. This will persuade Russia to use its Stage Five resources for the welfare of its people rather than for war. . . . The industrial countries must form a partnership with the underdeveloped countries of Asia, the Middle East, and Africa so they can move their economies into sustained growth without succumbing to Communism. . . . It is the period of preconditions for take-off—when a country is caught up in the confusion and conflict of trying to modernize and bring about a steady rate of growth—that seizure of power by Communist conspiracy is easiest. A centralized dictatorship may supply an essential pre-condition for this take-off—an effective modern state organization.”

Rostow ends his analysis with the dilemmas of Asia and Africa. He warns, “The fate of those of us who now live in the stage of high mass consumption will be largely determined by the nature of the pre-conditions process and take-off in distant nations. The stages of growth analysis may contribute an insight into matters which are necessarily vicarious for us. And a knowledge of the many diverse societies, which have, in different ways, organized themselves for growth without suppressing the possibility of freedom, should give us heart to go forward with confidence.”

If the American people “panic” in the face of the Soviet economic challenge, serious changes and distractions in our economic system may occur. Some of the statistical evidence in the Rostow thesis and in other references described above may serve to guard against precipitous governmental intervention. A representative of the Committee for Economic Development warned Congress recently, “For us to seek to force our rate of economic growth by a great expansion of the role of government, and by curtailing the freedom of families to choose between consumption and saving, and between work and leisure, would be inconsistent with our

values. And it would not make our system more appealing to others.”⁶

Yet we cannot afford to minimize the Soviet economic challenge. Communist countries have been expanding their economic relations with the non-Communist world and the Soviet Union has been especially alert to the opportunities for economic penetration in the new countries of Asia, the Middle East, Africa, and in Latin America. It is with regard to the non-Western societies in the stage of “take-off” that United States foreign policy lacks direction, consistency, and imagination. These societies, through design or necessity, play off the Western trade bloc against the Soviet trade bloc.

To meet the Soviet challenge, Professor Cahill suggests a counter strategy that would put Communism on the defensive in politics, economics, culture, science, and technology.⁷ Educators must develop an improved understanding of world affairs and the historical realities of the atomic age. We must help the non-Western societies in the stage of “take-off” to modernize their economies without the need for an aggressive nationalist impulse. We need a deeper understanding that foreign cultures are not necessarily inferior but only different. We must be prepared to spend a great deal of money in applying aid funds, perhaps through a continuing joint organization such as the United Nations. Finally, says Cahill, “the program would require a great deal of tact” and a commitment on our part to liberalize our import policy with respect to “these countries’ manufactured goods as and when they become available.”

The Rostow thesis helps us to place the Soviet economic challenge in proper perspective. Communist propaganda concerning their present and future industrial output receives a needed corrective. However, no one can ignore that the Soviets have placed themselves in a favorable position to use their economic development and industrial potential for propaganda purposes. In spite of the modest extent of Soviet aid to the countries in the stage of “take-off,” it has nevertheless had a remarkable political ef-

fect. The Soviet example of growth to economic great-power status must have a sizable psychological impact on underdeveloped nations. Economic penetration can be the most dangerous of all the weapons in the varied arsenal of international Communism.

¹ The reader is reminded that the details of this synthesis may be found in "Rostow on Growth: A Non-Communist Manifesto," *The Economist* (London), Vol. CXCII (August 15, 1959), pp. 409-416; and *ibid.*, (August 22, 1959), pp. 524-531. See also the summary in *U.S. News and World Report*, Nov. 2, 1959.

² Alec Nove, *Communist Economic Strategy*:

Soviet Growth and Capabilities. Washington: National Planning Association, 1959, pp. 45-47; Allen W. Dulles, "The Challenge of Soviet Power," in *Department of State Bulletin*, April 27, 1959, reprinted as Department of State Publication 6823 (May, 1959), 15 pp.

³ It is interesting to note that Canada and Australia have entered the stage of mass consumption before reaching maturity.

⁴ Dulles, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

⁵ *New York Times*, October 26, 1959.

⁶ Howard C. Peterson to the Joint Economic Committee of Congress, quoted in the *New York Times*, October 26, 1959.

⁷ Gilbert A. Cahill, *The New Soviet Economic Look: Challenge and Response*, (pamphlet), an address delivered at the Fourth Annual Honors Convocation, October 15, 1959, State University of New York, College of Education at Cortland.

Economic War in Guinea

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A new West African nation is the current "hot spot" in the cold war between Western private enterprise and the Communist orbit. Are the generous Red "gifts" to Guinea the beginning of an intense Communist economic offensive in Africa? Is our foreign policy in Guinea safeguarding American interests—including substantial American private investment?

Guinea is a country with a population of two and one-half million people in an area about the size of the State of Oregon. In September 1958 French Guinea voted to secede from the French Community in Africa and the Guinea Republic was officially recognized in January 1959. Since then it has made newspaper headlines frequently.

Guinea's importance far outweighs its size and population. It is a country whose poverty is beyond comprehension to most Americans. The average annual income is about forty dollars. It is also a country with desperate economic aspirations. It wants to industrialize—immediately. It is impatient with the Western idea of slow balanced growth and is fascinated by the leap in per capita income of the Russian and Chinese Communists. Guinea's Ambassador to France recently declared that the country was ready

to conclude commercial, cultural and technical agreements with any nation and that it is not ashamed to ask for technical help.

The Soviet bloc has recognized this all-important fact and has capitalized on it; the United States has not. Recently the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, East Germany and Poland concluded economic agreements with Guinea. These countries negotiated to buy 30 percent of Guinea's exports, including all of its palm kernel nuts and about half of its banana and coffee exports. Czechoslovakia has also given Guinea substantial "gifts" of agricultural, sanitary and military equipment. The first ambassador to the new country also arrived recently—from Communist Bulgaria.

We in the United States too frequently discount the beginnings of Communist economic warfare. Guinea is only the start—other nations which surround Guinea are imbued with the same hunger for rapid industrialization and economic progress. These countries are now all very ripe for falling into the hands of the Communists. Although the United States has an economic as well as a political stake in tropical Africa, our current foreign policy does not take into account these explosive demands for industrializa-

tion at any cost. Russian foreign policy definitely does take it into account. In fact, they are now stressing the idea that these countries should industrialize the way that they did—quickly and without capitalist exploitation.

Meanwhile Western investment, including American private investment, in Guinea is stymied and nervous. Will their installations be nationalized? Should they pull out while they can? What is to be done with half-finished projects that involve hundreds of millions of dollars? This atmosphere is certainly not conducive to interesting additional free world capital to invest in the country. And yet, without such additional investment, the future of a private enterprise system in Guinea is hardly bright. It is ironic to think that some of the private enterprise developed by the West may eventually be taken over by state-owned enterprise. President Sekou Toure has already set up a state trading agency to handle new business with the Communist bloc—a move that forebodes channeling private trade through government agencies.

Coffee and bananas are Guinea's primary exports at the current time, but reserves of iron and bauxite ore offer enviable potential income. It is estimated that Guinea's reserves of bauxite ore are sufficient to produce four million tons of bauxite per year for the next century. This is equal to approximately two million tons of alumina and one million tons of aluminum. Bauxite and iron ore now account for only 25 percent of total exports, but in several years the basic economy of the country will be radically altered and these ores will become the major export.

The development of the bauxite reserves will take about ten years' time, and the financing of both mining and processing involves American, French, British, Swiss, Canadian, German and Italian interests. Two distinct projects are now in the construction stage.

The first project to be completed will involve an investment of over one hundred million dollars by the *Compagnie Fria* which is jointly owned by the French aluminum

monopoly, *Pechiney-Ugine*; the American chemical company, *Olin Mathieson*; British Aluminium; the Swiss company, *Aluminium Industrie Aktiengesellschaft*; and the Italian company, *Montecatini*. The project was started several years ago when the country was French Guinea and the prospects of an independent Guinea were not even considered. The country's unexpected declaration of independence left the private interests involved in a quandry. The company plans to go ahead with the project, but American investments are now guaranteed by the United States Government. There is a limit to the risks a Western company can take with its shareholders' money.

The *Compagnie Fria* project will be completed in about four years' time. Plans include mining bauxite, building an alumina plant with an initial annual capacity of 250,000 tons and an eventual capacity of 1,200,000 tons, constructing new port facilities in the capital city of Conakry, building a 140-kilometer railroad, and creating a new city called *Fria* some sixty miles from Conakry. The entire installation will be the largest of its type in the world. In addition to mining and processing the bauxite ore, the company must build roads, workers' houses, hospitals, schools and recreational facilities, as well as install electric and communications systems.

The second project, also requiring an investment of over one hundred million dollars, will be completed in approximately eight to ten years' time. The Company is the *Société Bauxites du Midi*, a subsidiary of *Aluminium Ltd.* It plans to mine one and one-half million tons of bauxite annually upon completion of the project. Current free world bauxite capacity production is about twelve million tons annually.

Société Bauxites du Midi plans to export from one-half to two-thirds of the bauxite to Canada for processing; the balance will be treated locally for the extraction of alumina. This company too will build a port, a railroad and all the necessary infrastructure for the three cities in which it will operate.

The total private investment of the above two companies will be in the neighborhood

of two hundred million United States dollars. In addition, two other companies are to be involved in this spectacular development project—political situation permitting. The Société Civile d'Etudes Hydroelectriques du Konkoure et du Kouilou, financed by the French Government and the aluminum companies, will construct a dam at Souapiti with a power station generating enough power for an aluminum smelter with a capacity of 150,000 tons. Guinea is probably the only place in the world where the bauxite ore and the power are found together. The refining will be done at the source by another company, Aluminium de Guinée.

The multiplied effects of this several hundred million dollar investment are, and will continue to be, felt in all sectors of the economy. The resultant increases in wage and salary income as well as in profits should create substantial increases in the people's standard of living.

There are, nevertheless, many economic problems which need to be faced now and in the future. The spending of large amounts of capital in a comparatively short period of time creates the dangers of inflation. Increased income may also result in an excessive expansion of the number of middlemen and retailers. After the construction period is completed the problem of unemployment will also appear. Most of the construction workers are unskilled and will be unable to find suitable employment when the bauxite and alumina projects are completed. They will probably not wish to return to farming and the social problems of cities crowded with unemployed workers will plague the country.

Additional capital will be necessary to develop other industry and, most important, funds are needed for educational purposes. The country is 95% illiterate and completely lacking in technical "know-how." Guinea has about two hundred college graduates, and about two hundred and fifty schools. The population is two and one-half million! Here is a real opportunity for United States aid—in funds and in technical assistance. If we do not supply Guinea with financial aid for edu-

cational purposes, the Russians will. Children can easily be indoctrinated, and adults will be fertile fields for communist propaganda if they are plagued by inflation and unemployment as a result of "capitalist exploitation."

Guinea has ambitious goals — politically and economically. Its capital and technical resources are well below its goals. The country needs help so urgently that it will take it from West or East, or from both areas at the same time. The Soviet is already providing aid, technicians and educational facilities for Guinea's youths in Moscow. If current conditions continue, American and Western efforts will certainly have less beneficial effects in the country than will the Communist efforts. If we do not change our ways, and soon, Guinea and the other countries of tropical Africa will look to the Communist bloc instead.

It would also be unfortunate if we should offer them aid with the stipulation that they choose between East and West. Spokesmen for Guinea have said that the country will not choose sides nor will they participate in international quarrels.

Guinea needs financial and technical aid to develop its educational facilities. It also needs to develop its own private entrepreneurs. The Western World can help with capital and technology. The investment of American, French, British, Canadian, Swiss, Italian and German capital in the bauxite project is an excellent beginning but it is not enough. The deterrent to additional investment is, however, immense. The risks are enormous, economically as well as politically.

Politically, the threat of expropriation is always present. Economically, the potential profits are not always inviting. Costs are always higher than expected — productivity of labor is low because it is unskilled, infrastructure is practically non-existent and the construction of a plant involves building roads, schools and hospitals as well as productive facilities. How can we overcome these difficulties?

American industry and government must work together in the underdeveloped areas

of tropical Africa. Existing guarantees by the Government of private investment in these areas should be broadened substantially. Without such a guarantee how many American companies would be willing to invest their stockholders' money in such a precarious investment? Another stimulus would be reduced taxes for American companies operating in African underdeveloped areas. Finally, a source of long term capital at low interest rates would aid in facilitating investment in these areas, especially if the

loans could be repaid in local currencies out of the earnings of the projects.

The United States has critical responsibilities in this economic war now being waged in underdeveloped areas throughout the world and most recently in tropical Africa. Guinea is now the focal point, but it will undoubtedly spread throughout the area—soon and at an accelerated pace. If we do not act decisively and with dispatch, these areas may readily become part of the Communist bloc.

The Far East in the High School Curriculum

JAMES HIGH

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Lafcadio Hearn, a singularly sensitive and individualistic American newspaper man, expatriated himself from the land of his birth and ultimately became a Japanese, even attaining a position of preeminence among the great literary figures of his adoptive land. He never quite lost touch with the Western World, however, and in the course of a most productive though eccentric life he translated many Japanese fables and other Japanese lore into English. Among these stories is one which illustrates a great deal of human character and points up an attitude common in the United States concerning the Far East.

"Long, long ago, in the good old days before the hairy-faced and palecheeked men from over the Sea of Great Peace came to Japan, before the smoke and the snorting iron horse scared the white heron from the rice fields; before black crows and fighting sparrows, which fear not men, perched on telegraph wires, or even a railway was thought of, there lived two frogs—one in a well in Kyoto, the other in a lotus-pond in Osaka, forty miles away.

"Each frog decided to go and visit the

other's city. They laboriously made the journey in halting jumps until they met, halfway, at the top of the ridge separating the two places. After an exchange of confidences as to their purposes each stood up to take a final look at their respective goals before the final lap. Alas, frogs wear their eyes at the backs of their heads! All that each frog could see was the town from which he came. Thinking they had seen the objective, it appeared to be exactly as the point of departure. Both frogs turned sadly back, disillusioned with travel and convinced that Osaka and Kyoto were identical."

How like our own ignorance of the Orient; we live in our lily ponds at Los Angeles or our wells in New York and know little of the wide world. We have preserved our ignorance of the Far East almost intact with the exceptions of an unreasoning fear of China and superficial familiarity with Japan since World War II.

Japan was not even so much as a name to Europeans until after Marco Polo's return in 1295. He reported the fabled wonders of Cipangu, as it was called, from the dubious vantage point of observation with Kublai

Khan's unsuccessful attempt at a sea invasion of Japan's southern coast of Kyushu.

By 1768, the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* required only twenty-five words to tell what was known of Japan. In 1853, when Commodore Perry was sent by the United States to reopen Japan to the West, a newspaper declared that for "ourselves we look forward to [the] result with some such interest as we might suppose would be awakened among the generality, were a balloon to soar off to one of the planets under the direction of some experienced aeronaut."

We know now what we might have known earlier. We still know but little, however, about Japan and the rest of the Far East. Twenty-five hundred years of Japanese history and possibly four thousand years of Chinese development and civilization cannot be set aside by the assertion of Fustal de Coulanges that "*L'histoire ne sert à rien.*" Several millenia of dynastic integrity mean something whether we know of them or not. It behooves us to know about them—about the Far East. There is nothing more mysterious than ignorance; mystery has a way of dissolving in the light of knowledge. The Oriental presents no enigma when we know him.¹

A few years ago a Japanese Confucianist answered a jesting query as to what he might do in case of invasion by a force of Chinese led by Confucius with Mencius as his lieutenant. "I would strike off the head of Confucius and steep the flesh of Mencius in brine," was the reply. There is nothing here more mysterious than a statement of nationalistic spirit iterated by any member of any society — Confucian, Buddhist or Christian. *Yamato damashii* is the term applied to the patriotic Japanese spirit.² Most simply and literally it is *yamato*—man of Japan. Of course, the first two characters, Nihon (Nippon or Japan), exactly rendered mean the source of light or the sun. This does constitute a special emphasis to Japanese national spirit, backed by traditional "knowledge" of twenty-five hundred consecutive years of the transmission of that special light through a succession of anointed

monarchs, or "gateways." The difference, however, from our reliance in about the same length of Western cultural heritage is only in the figure of statement.

As of December 7, 1941, general knowledge of Japan was not really very different from that expressed by Marco Polo when he described Japan as "an island towards the east in the high seas, fifteen hundred miles distant from the continent and a very good island it is."³ As the United States struggled expensively across the Pacific westward during World War II we learned more and more about Japanese soldiers until finally, in Japan itself, the enigma of the Orient degenerated into the spectacle of a defeated people. Unfortunately the pursuit of knowledge concerning Asians did not continue with the same zeal that pursuit of the Asians themselves had evoked. It is true that many Americans have served tours of duty in Japan and other places in the Far East since World War II, but whenever possible an enclave of familiar Americanism has been set up in the midst of an alien people who must make most of the overtures toward mutual intercourse. We rather maintain a generalized ignorance of Asia and Asians.

If we defeated the Japanese we certainly failed to disestablish their war aim which they stated simply as the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere. The Japanese failed to dominate such an organization of the Far East, but our former allies and present antagonists, the Chinese, are going far toward realization of their self-conscious aims, formerly those of our erstwhile enemies, the Japanese—this time with the slogan, "Asia for Asians." Anywhere in the Far East, north to south, from the Philippines to Pakistan, one may see the same course of events and hardening of attitude. To know this there is only one requisite; simply look. It is not necessary to go to the Orient to learn about it, although that might be desirable; but on the other hand, it is quite possible to visit a place, especially in the Orient, for long periods of time and still maintain a rigid ignorance and only converse with its people in pidgin English about the obvious and com-

mon necessities of life—such as scallions, fish and servants.

One of the best ways to combat the pall of ignorance concerning the Far East is to offer elective courses in its history in high school. This is done in some places and has been done for many years, but the practice is not widespread. It would perhaps be desirable to include some geography, history and perhaps a little linguistic study in such an offering, and certainly some of the folk lore and travel accounts. Marco Polo's descriptions of China are just as much a part of oriental lore as is the national enshrinement of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, a long time resident of Hawaii. This sort of subject would be particularly well adapted to the senior seminar, usually made up of gifted students, where various students could work on different aspects of the whole topic.

It is interesting to note, as examples of Far Eastern fact, that Japan is not simply "a very good island," as Marco Polo guessed. It is principally four major islands of a group of 4,223, mainly volcanic peaks protruding from the ocean in an arc from the Tropic of Cancer off Fukien Province, China, to a point near Kamchatka, Russia, at latitude 50° North. It is roughly the size of California, and has a population in the neighborhood of 90 millions, exploiting the "iron horse" and other elements of industrial society to a degree greatly exceeding the observations of Lafcadio Hearn in the early twentieth century. China, long thought of as a sleeping giant, a badly organized collection of famine-ridden peasants numbering 450 millions, is in actuality a rapidly developing leader of Asia for Asians, a new national state with a monolithic central government whose latest census estimate places the population at about 625 million inhabitants—not all famine beset peasants by any means. How well known is it that Thailand (formerly Siam), only twenty-five years away from absolute monarchy and less than half a century out of oriental despotism, has Coca-Cola in every inland village, a modern marine corps and several English language newspapers in Bangkok?

There are islands of European influence and culture in the Far East such as Hong Kong, Macao and Singapore, but these are dying symbols of an older imperialism that is rapidly being replaced by national self-consciousness on the parts of numerous groups throughout the area. During the twentieth century the United States has acquired and manumitted the dependency of the Philippines. It is now a republic with full fledged national status and membership in the South-east Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) and in the United Nations. Somewhat later in the century our attention has been forced on several other nations because of their internal warlike proclivities or their deliberate wrenching free from old colonial domination by France, England or the Netherlands. Indo-China is no longer French but four semi-national entities: Cambodia, Laos, South Vietnam and North Vietnam. India, Pakistan, Ceylon and Burma are now equal members of the British Commonwealth of Nations with complete right (and perhaps intention) to withdraw from even that loose bondage to colonial memories. The former Netherlands East Indies, fabled land of spices and adventure since the sixteenth century, is now the Indonesian Republic, fraught with dissension and aspirations to democratic standing in the family of nations. Malaya is no longer the simple scene of British planters and untrustworthy natives that was depicted in the novels and short stories of Somerset Maugham. It is still under the protection of Great Britain, but it is only a matter of time until these people also gain a new sense of their dignity and importance to the aims of mankind and the Asian bloc of nations.

In all this flux of self-awareness in the Far East there are two obvious elements of concern for the rest of the world, for American social studies: nationalism and pan-Asian solidarity in the quest for better conditions of living and for realization of the human right to self determination. We had better learn about them and about their aspirations.

Despite the rather general disregard of knowledge about the Far East there are

many books and a great deal of information concerning its history, customs and geography. Especially since World War II a good many earnest American scholars have unearthed new information and re-ordered old into a form that can be encompassed in high school courses of instruction.⁴ The following outline and reference suggestions give examples of what may be done. Of course, there are many other possibilities than the ones offered here. It is felt that the emphasis should be on the better known areas of the Far East and in the period of time since these places have become important to the United States; that is, the twentieth century for the most part.

I. The Pacific Rim

A. Pacific the largest ocean

1. Settled first on the western side (China is one of the oldest of all civilizations)
2. European dominance of the eastern side after 1492
3. Possible contacts across the Pacific in pre-Columbian times
4. Diverse and scattered cultures in the Pacific from ancient times
5. Magellan and the Philippines: first European penetration
 - a. This has somewhat determined the non-oriental position of the Philippines

B. Basic geography

II. Definition of the Orient—it might be anything “east of Suez,” beyond Constantinople from the Western European point of view. Here the Orient or Far East includes East Asia (China, Korea, Japan) Southeast Asia and the Indian Realm.

A. East Asia—centering on China, or the Central Land (Middle Kingdom from one interpretation of its name as written in characters, “center” and “country”)

1. Almost concurrent in origin with Egypt
2. The center of oriental culture for thousands of years
3. Considered itself superior to all else possible

4. First made sharply aware of the West in the 13th century

5. Dynastic progression from about 2000 B.C. until the fall of the Manchus in 1912 always presented the same pattern; the new rulers instituted reforms, ruled in prosperity and peace for a time, then were driven out by popular uprisings of the peasants when nepotism and corruption simply could be borne no longer, to be replaced by a new dynasty. Otherwise the people cared little about civil affairs and government. The Chinese peasant has characterized himself through the bard:

Work, work,—from the rising sun

Till sunset comes and day is done

I plough the sod

And farrow the clod.

And meat and drink both come to me

So what care I for the powers that be?⁵

6. European trade penetration in the 19th century

- a. Opium wars
- b. Boxer Rebellion and the United States, 1900

7. Chinese revolution and establishment of the republic, 1912

- a. Sun Yat-sen
- b. Chiang Kai-shek
- c. World War I to World War II

8. China versus Japan, 1932-1945

9. Postwar rise of communism

- a. Mao Tse-tung
- b. Modern nationalism

B. Japan

1. Japanese political tradition

- a. Early Japan
- b. Feudal era
- c. Meiji revolution and entrance of the United States

d. Growth of national self-consciousness

- 1) War with China, 1895-1896
- 2) Russo-Japanese War, 1905
- 3) World War I and the Pacific islands (League of Nations Man-

- date to Japan of former German possessions)
- 4) World War II: the climax of nationalism
2. Japan in defeat and American occupation
 - a. Japanese war aims
 - b. War crimes trials
 - c. Rehabilitation and relations with the communist world
- C. Southeast Asia
1. General setting and historical growth as a shatter region
 2. Burma
 - a. British colonialism
 - b. National self determination following World War II
 3. Thailand (Siam)
 - a. Kmer origin from Indian culture⁶
 - b. Individuality
 - c. Evolution of Thai nationalism
 4. Indochina
 - a. French consolidation of four old regional hegemonies
 - b. Internal revolt at colonialism and the rise of communism
 - c. Present redefinition of national entities
 - 1) Four states
 - 2) Divided north and south
 5. Malaya, Indonesia and the Philippine Republic
 - a. British, Dutch and American colonialism
 - b. World War II and the emergence of national status
- III. India and Pakistan (mostly occupied by non-Mongoloid peoples, therefore sometimes left out of consideration of the Far East)
- A. Ancient India and its civilization
1. Diversity caused by wars and counter migrations
 2. Growth of traditional Indian religions
 3. Hindu social customs grew out of the religion
 - a. Caste
 - b. Religious-social relationship of caste status. In 1957, 250,000 untouchables, in the greatest conversion ceremony in history, became Buddhists in order to evade the strictures of their caste in Indian society.
- B. Conquests of India
1. Moslem Moguls to the eighteenth century
 2. British and French struggle for India, 1763
 3. British Empire based on Indian colonialism in the nineteenth century
 - a. The British Raj—from Pondichary to New Delhi⁷
 - b. Rise of Indian nationalism
 4. Struggle for independence
 - a. Government of India Act, 1919
 - b. World War II
 5. Independence, 1948
 6. India and Pakistan divided along religious lines
 - a. Mohammedans in the north
 - b. Hindus in the south
 - c. Disputed territories—Kashmir
 7. Great personalities in the struggle
 - a. Mahatma Gandhi: civil disobedience and passive resistance
 - b. Pandit Nehru: modern politician and the Congress Party
 8. Present Indian position in the world: right, left, neutral? The chief problem in both India and Pakistan is to raise the standard of living of the great mass of people. This, in turn, rests on the progress of industrialization and education. The main political problem has been solved; economic and social dilemmas remain.
- IV. International Relations in the Far East
- A. Russia, China, Korea, Japan to 1945
 - B. United States and the Far East to 1945
 - C. Postwar relations among the nations of the world in the Far East since World War II
 1. United States (Korean War)
 2. Unilateral agreements (treaty with Japan)

REFERENCES

In the Far Eastern field of study there is no specially prepared juvenile bibliography; in fact, as to many facets of that study there

are no books in English at all. Therefore it is necessary here to indicate such books and other material as may be available and which can prove of value for both student and teacher. The following list is by no means exhaustive, merely representing what the author has been able to find and examine which may be to the point of increasing general knowledge of the Far East as a major geographic region and as a number of national states and dependencies of Western powers. The titles chosen are predominantly concerned with the twentieth century, leaving older studies to a more advanced level of education.

In connection with high school study of the Far East, it should be remembered that nearly all of the diplomatic missions from the countries involved are prepared to furnish either cheaply or *gratis* a great deal of audio-visual material. Much of it is of very high quality, but always there will be evident the individual national desires and aspirations pertaining to each of the areas. Nearly all of the nations and colonies in the Far East are deeply concerned with the problem of national self determination and consciousness and their probable status in the world of the future. Religious commitment over vast areas also creates problems of special interest to national states, and very often those states attempt to propagandize for and publicize their religious points of view. As an example, the Islamic Center in Washington, D. C., is the representative monument to all American residents who are members of the Moslem faith. Under auspices of the Islamic Center various publications are circulated in the United States. One such pamphlet was prepared by a member of the Egyptian Embassy and its distribution is aided by agencies of Pakistan and other Islamic countries whose national interests are transcended at certain points by the general membership in a religion that extends nearly half way around the world from North Africa to the Philippine Republic and embraces over five hundred million souls.⁸

GENERAL BOOKS

Geography

George F. Deasy, Phyllis R. Griess, E. Willard Miller and Earl C. Case, *The World's Nations: An Economic and Regional Geography* (J. B. Lippincott, Philadelphia, 1958), Part Five, "Asia," and Part Seven, "The Australian Area and the Pacific Islands," deals in all major detail with the regions considered in this outline. This book contains specially interesting and useful detail maps of various subregions.

G. B. Cressey, *Asia's Lands and Peoples* (2nd ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, 1951), and L. Dudley Stamp, *Asia: A Regional and Economic Geography* (8th ed., Dutton, London, 1950), are standard general works of great value.

W. G. East and O. H. K. Spate, *The Changing Map of Asia: A Political Geography* (Dutton, New York, 1951), is concerned with political change.

Joseph E. Spencer, *Asia: East by South* (John Wiley, New York, 1954), deals effectively with southeast Asia in geographic terms.

History

Franz H. Michael and George F. Taylor, *The Far East in the Modern World* (Henry Holt, New York, 1956), is possibly the best book available. It does not treat India but includes Burma and Malaya as British colonies. The book is organized in terms of world impact on the Far East.

Paul Hibbert Clyde, *The Far East* (2nd ed., Prentice-Hall, New York, 1952); Claude Buss, *The Far East* (Macmillan, New York, 1955), are basic introductions to the twentieth century in the Far East. They both contain a minimum of earlier history. They are both rather difficult books.

Kenneth Scott Latourette, *A History of the Expansion of Christianity*, 6 vols. (Harper, New York, 1944), Vol. 6, deals with the Far East, and although built around a certain theme, it details a great deal of the history of the region and indicates the quality of Western impact on the East. Also his

The American Record in the Far East, 1945-1951 (Macmillan, New York, 1952).

Osgood Hardy and Glenn Dumke, *A History of the Pacific Area in Modern Times* (Houghton, Mifflin, Boston, 1949), is an attempt to survey all of the lands and people with their recent history, bordering on the Pacific Ocean or in it. The scope is really too great for any one book, but this volume is the best and most recent effort in that direction.

Economic Conditions and Problems

L. Dudley Stamp, *Land for Tomorrow: The Underdeveloped World* (University of Indiana Press, Bloomington, 1952), treats all of the underdeveloped regions of the world.

William Mandel, *The Soviet Far East and Central Asia* (Dial Press, New York, 1944), is mainly concerned with the economic growth of Siberia.

United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, *Processes and Problems of Industrialization in Underdeveloped Countries* (1955), again, is a world survey of problems and progress.

Diplomacy and International Relations

Fred Greene, *The Far East* (Rinehart, New York, 1957), is concerned mainly with the latter part of the twentieth century. It is one of the few books on the Far East that deals with India and Pakistan.

Julius W. Pratt, *A History of United States Foreign Policy* (Prentice-Hall, New York, 1955), in Chapter 18 deals with the opening of Asia to American trade in the nineteenth century, in Chapter 28 with the Open Door Policy in China and the events leading up to the Chinese revolution. Chapters 42 and 47 cover the incidents of World War II and the postwar struggle for East Asia.

PACIFIC OCEAN AREA

General

Hendrik Van Loon, *Story of the Pacific* (Harcourt, Brace, New York, 1940), and Felix Riesenberg, *The Pacific Ocean* (McGraw-Hill, New York, 1940), are popular accounts of the region, suitable for less mature students.

C. Raymond Beazley, *The Dawn of Modern Geography*, 3 vols. (University of Oxford Press, 1897-1906), is a classic of geographic description, includes exploration of the Pacific. Stephan Zweig, *Conqueror of the Seas, the Story of Magellan* (Viking Press, New York, 1938), is a good biography. Edward G. Bourne, *Discovery, Conquest, and Early History of the Philippine Islands* (A. H. Clark, Cleveland, 1907), describes much early Pacific exploration. Foster Rhea Dulles, *America in the Pacific* (Houghton, Mifflin, Boston, 1938), treats more recent times.

A. L. Kroeber, *Peoples of the Philippines* (American Museum of Natural History, 1919), is ethnographic information by an eminent anthropologist.

James Cook, *A Voyage . . . around the World* (1777), is Captain Cook's own story. Harold W. Bradley, *The American Frontier in Hawaii: The Pioneers, 1789-1843* (Stanford University Press, 1942), is the best recent history of early Hawaiian history.

Amry Vandenbosch, *The Dutch East Indies* (University of California Press, Berkeley, 1942), deals with the Dutch empire in the Pacific.

Concerning the miscellaneous islands of the Pacific there are many books, some of them rather old, but none that covers the whole area. Outstanding for young people is the work of Robert Louis Stevenson, *A Foot-Note to History: Eight Years of Trouble in Samoa* (1892), in *Works*.

Of general geographic, historic and ethnic interest is G. L. Wood and P. R. McBride, *The Pacific Basin* (Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1946).

Foster Rhea Dulles, *China and America: The Story of Their Relations since 1784* (Princeton University Press, 1946), synthesizes the circumstances and factors which have determined our policies toward China and consequently to a large extent in regard to the whole Pacific Basin.

CHINA

General

Kenneth Scott Latourette, *The Chinese: Their History and Culture* (2 vols., 3rd ed., Macmillan, New York, 1946), is an exten-

sive and scholarly survey of Chinese history. L. C. Goddard, *A Short History of the Chinese People* (Harper, New York, 1953), is an easier, shorter book covering Chinese history.

H. G. Creel, *Chinese Thought from Confucius to Mao Tse-tung* (University of Chicago Press, 1953); *Confucius: The Man and the Myth* (John Day, New York, 1949); Arthur Waley, *The Way and Its Power* (Houghton, Mifflin, Boston, 1942), all deal with the most important problem of Chinese religion and philosophy. Confucianism is perhaps the most prevalent religious belief in China and its reinforcement of the Chinese family bond is a most significant historical element. *The World's Great Religions* (Life-Time, New York, 1955), has one section devoted to the same subject with very fine illustrations and a text that is simply stated—suitable for high school students.

In the matter of source materials in English for the study of ancient China, naturally there is very little available to the Western student, but Edwin O. Reischauer has translated *Ennin's Diary: The Records of a Pilgrimage to China* (Ronald Press, New York, 1955), which gives an eighth century view of China from a Japanese point of view.

Inner China: Mongolia, Tibet, Manchuria

Owen Lattimore, *Inner Frontiers of China* (American Geographic Society, New York, 1940); *Pivot of Asia* (Little, Brown, Boston, 1950); and A. de Riencourt, *Roof of the World* (Rinehart, New York, 1951), are three among a great many titles on this phase of Asia. Rudyard Kipling, *Kim* (many editions), is a fictionalized adventure in espionage which incidentally sheds a good bit of light on Inner Asia and is particularly good for students.

Modern China and the Nationalist Revolution

Werner Levi, *Modern China's Foreign Policy* (University of Minnesota Press, 1953), illustrates the result of foreign intervention in China.

R. L. Powell, *The Rise of Chinese Military Power, 1885-1912* (Princeton University Press, 1955), shows the way that one type of reaction developed.

S. Chen and R. Payne, *Sun Yat-sen: A Portrait* (John Day, New York, 1946), is a competent biography of the one man since Confucius that is respected by all Chinese.

Chiang Kai-shek, *China's Destiny* (Macmillan, New York, 1947), written by a dictator only a couple of years before he was relegated to Formosa, this book fails to arouse much suspicion of danger to the Chinese state at that time. It is an attempt to sell the West on Chiang's program.

Chiang Kai-shek, *The Collected Wartime Messages of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, 1937-1945* (John Day, New York, 1946), constitutes a body of raw material for the historian and also illustrates Chiang's position of an almost powerless third force in the European-American domination of World War II policies. He wanted the second front in Asia, not in Europe.

Rise of Communism in China

Mao Tse-tung, *Collected Works* (5 vols., International Publishers, New York, 1954-), is largely Communist doctrine thinly disguised in the Chinese setting; it tends to offset the papers of Chiang Kai-shek as source material. Edgar Snow, *Red Star over China* (Random House, New York, 1938), is an American's view of the days of adversity in the organization of the Communist Eighth Route Army which became the nucleus of Mao's forces.

Theodore White and A. Jacoby, *Thunder Out of China* (Sloan, New York, 1946), predicts the ascendancy of Communism.

Current assessment of Communist China is very difficult, but a good many persons have attempted it because of the obvious significance of such a large group of people as the Chinese represent. The neutralist states are said by the Western nations really to be sympathetic to China on the grounds that "if you are not with us you are against us."

R. Hutheesing, *The Great Peace* (Harper, New York, 1953), is an Indian's attempt to state the neutral position—neither for nor against anyone.

A. M. Dunlap, *Behind the Bamboo Curtain* (Public Affairs Press, Washington, D. C., 1956), is an American view.

JAPAN

The Setting and Older History

G. T. Trewartha, *Japan: A Physical, Cultural and Regional Geography* (University of Wisconsin Press, 1945), lives up to its title.

G. B. Sansome, *A Short Cultural History of Japan* (Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York, 1943), is a standard and competent survey of Japanese history.

B. H. Chamberlain, *Things Japanese* (6th ed., Thompson, Kobe, 1909), illustrates the strangeness of native Japanese customs as seen by early Western visitors.

Lafcadio Hearn, *Japan: An Attempt at Interpretation* (Macmillan, New York, 1905), by an expatriate American, this book tries to present Japanese life and history in a sympathetic manner.

Edwin O. Reischauer, *The United States and Japan* (Harvard University Press, 1945), traces our relationships from the time of Perry.

Japanese Expansion to the End of World War II

Delmer Brown, *Nationalism in Japan* (University of California Press, Berkeley, 1955), stresses understanding of the greatest single force in the development of Japanese character: nationalism.

Frank Gibney, *Five Gentlemen of Japan* (Farrar, Straus & Cudahy, New York, 1953), is a reporter's view, tempered by a knowledge of the Japanese language and wartime experience, of Japanese politics.

John Hersey, *Hiroshima* (Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1946), is a sensitive and sympathetic description of the havoc of the atomic bomb at Hiroshima in 1945. Suitable for students.

Marius Jansen, *The Japanese and Sun Yat-sen* (Harvard University Press, 1954), probes a little known facet of Japanese consciousness.

John Maki, *Japanese Militarism: Its Cause and Cure* (Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1945), analyses the Japanese world megalomania and misunderstanding of the West.

Otto Tolischus, *Tokyo Record* (Harcourt, Brace, New York, 1943), a war correspond-

ent's contribution to the war effort—easy to read.

Literature

Anthology of Japanese Literature, edited by Donald Keene (Grove Press, New York, 1955), is a complete and representative collection.

SOUTHEAST ASIA

General

D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia* (St. Martin's Press, New York, 1955), is an attempt at inclusion of all of the national histories of the principal units of Southeast Asia. In attempting so much there is little but detail, but the book is useful in that it is unique in the field. Difficult.

R. Lemay, *The Culture of Southeast Asia* (Allen & Unwin, London, 1954), shows anthropological evidence from which certain generalizations may be made concerning customs, economics and politics.

South Asia in the World Today, edited by Phillips Talbot (University of Chicago Press, 1950), is a collection of essays by various persons, each of whom knows a particular thing about a certain subregion of Southeast Asia, such as General Carlos P. Romulo of the Philippine Republic.

Southeast Asia in the Coming World, edited by Philip Thayer (Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, 1953), is another symposium of disparate authors, yet there is a theme, democracy and its opponents.

C. Dubois, *Social Forces in Southeast Asia* (University of Minnesota Press, 1949), based on sociological techniques of research, this book contains a great deal of information concerning the area.

J. S. Furnivall, *Colonial Policy and Practice* (Cambridge University Press, New York, 1948), deals with the colonial problem in Southeast Asia where nearly every nation has been or is now in a state of colonial dependency but with the sharp desire to achieve national status.

Thailand

Virginia Thompson, *Thailand: The New Siam* (Macmillan, New York, 1942), describes the country and its history.

John E. de Young, *Village Life in Modern*

Thailand (University of California Press, Berkeley, 1955), depicts the old in a new setting which is typical of Thailand.

Two books which are not at all of a scholarly nature, yet are important sources of information concerning two separate phases in Thai history are, M. Landon, *Anna and the King of Siam* (John Day, New York, 1944), which is the poignant story of a Victorian lady, Anna Leonowens, who went to Siam as a governess to the future king, Chulalongkorn, just after the American Civil War; and A. McDonald, *Bangkok Editor* (Macmillan, New York, 1949), about the author's spectacular adventure in setting up an English language newspaper in Thailand after World War II. Both books add something to the lore of Southeast Asia and are suitable for high school students.

Indochina

J. F. Cady, *The Roots of French Imperialism in Eastern Asia* (Cornell University Press, 1954), describes the process.

Virginia Thompson, *French Indo-China* (Macmillan, New York, 1937), shows this colonial region as it was.

Ellen Hammer, *The Struggle for Indochina* (Stanford University Press, 1954), brings up to date the history of the region which is mainly revolutionary since the outbreak of World War II.

Burma

J. L. Christian, *Modern Burma* (University of California Press, Berkeley, 1942), shows Burma as it was just prior to independence.

Atlantic Monthly, "Burma Supplement (February, 1958)," gives samples of Burmese thinking and creative writing which show the quality of their attempt to develop an independent democracy. This is fine material for students.

Thakin Nu, *Burma under the Japanese* (St. Martin's Press, New York, 1954), is a statement of faith by the man who was Burma's great postwar prime minister under the name, U Nu.

Malaya

G. Z. Hanrahan, *The Communist Struggle in Malaya* (Institute of Pacific Relations,

1954), describes the underground and guerilla efforts being made.

Perhaps one of the best ways for high school students to learn about nineteenth century Malaya and the British empire in general is to read the novels and short stories of Somerset Maugham who lived in the Federated Malay States for many years. There are such collections as *Ah Sing* and *Cakes and Ale*, and the short story *Rain*, being set farther out in the South Pacific.

Indonesia

H. J. van Mook, *The Netherlands Indies and Japan* (Norton, New York, 1944), stresses the period of Japanese invasion during World War II.

A. A. Schiller, *The Formation of Federal Indonesia* (Van Hoeve, The Hague, 1955), shows the growth of a national state out of a colonial dependency.

Amry Vandenbosch, *The Dutch East Indies* (University of California Press, 1942), describes the old colonial organization.

Joseph E. Spencer, *Land and People in the Philippines* (University of California Press, 1955), is a geography of the region.

C. Benitez, *History of the Philippines* (Ginn, Boston, 1940), and Carlos P. Romulo, *Crusade in Asia* (John Day, New York, 1955), bring the Philippine Republic up to date.

INDIA AND PAKISTAN

General

O. K. Spate, *India and Pakistan* (Dutton, New York, 1954), is a geography.

S. Piggott, *Prehistoric India to 1000 B.C.* (Penguin, London, 1950), shows India as one of the world's oldest civilizations.

The Cambridge History of India, edited by H. H. Dodwell (Macmillan, New York, 1934), is a one volume version of the standard five volume *Cambridge History of India* (Cambridge University Press, 1922-1937). This is probably the most complete narrative, but as yet there is not enough monographic material to write a definitive history of the whole region.

P. Griffiths, *The British Impact on India* (Macmillan, New York, 1952), surveys the

rise and decline of British imperialism and what it left behind.

Nationalism and Partition

C. A. Birchwood, *A Continent Decides* (Praeger, New York, 1954), tells how India and Pakistan were born.

Hector Bolitho, *Jinnah: Creator of Pakistan* (Macmillan, New York, 1954), is about the life of a great Moslem leader, founder of Pakistan.

Mohandas K. Gandhi, *Gandhi's Autobiography* (Public Affairs Press, Washington, D. C., 1948), is the leader's own impressions of how he discovered the doctrine of passive disobedience from the work of Henry Thoreau, down almost to the time of his death.

Jawaharlal Nehru, *Toward Freedom* (John Day, New York, 1941), and *The Discovery of India* (1946), show the political faith of the present leader in neutralism.

Social Conditions

J. H. Hutton, *Caste in India* (Macmillan, New York, 1946), treats the great problem of social inequality.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IN THE FAR EAST *Korea*

G. D. Taylor, *Korea: A Geographic Appreciation* (Department of Mines and Technical Surveys, Ottawa, 1951), demonstrates the geographic disabilities of a nation with strategic importance.

C. Osgood, *The Koreans and their Culture* (Ronald Press, New York, 1951), describes *Chosen*, the "land of morning calm."

R. T. Oliver, *Syngman Rhee* (Dodd, Mead, New York, 1954), is a life of the American-educated former president of Korea, including a sketch of twentieth century development.

Russia

George Creel, *Russia's Race for Asia* (Bobbs, Merrill, Indianapolis, 1949), shows the historic clash of imperial aspirations in East Asia.

David Dallin, *Soviet Russia and the Far East* (Yale University Press, 1948), describes Russia's national quest for power in the Orient.

Maurice Hindus, *Russia and Japan*

(Doubleday, New York, 1942), by a Russian sympathizer, surveys the conflicts of the two nations.

United States

Foster Rhea Dulles, *America's Rise to World Power, 1899-1954* (Harper, New York, 1955), examines American reluctance to face responsibilities inherent in world leadership.

Earl Swisher, *China's Management of the American Barbarians* (Yale University Press, 1953), compares the basic characterological sets of the two people.

Herbert Feis, *The Road to Pearl Harbor* (Princeton University Press, 1950), and *China Tangle* (1953), using source documents exclusively, traces the involvement of the United States in a Pacific war.

Kenneth Scott Latourette, *The American Record in the Far East* (Macmillan, New York, 1952), sketches American postwar activity in Asian affairs.

Chester Bowles, *The New Dimensions of Peace* (Harper, New York, 1955), written by a one-time New Dealer and later special representative to India, the author tries to show the gains of a program of economic aid to depressed nations in the Far East, but without recourse to military assistance.

Source materials on Far Eastern affairs in English are always scarce and obscure, but for the specific problem of Chinese-American relations there is the State Department China White Paper which goes far toward illuminating with documents our postwar *contretemps* in that field (*United States Relations with China*, Department of State Publication 3573, Washington, D. C., 1949).

Periodicals Dealing with the Far East

The Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th Street, New York 22, publishes *Far Eastern Survey*, a monthly pamphlet carrying scholarly articles of current interest to students of Asia. In addition, the Institute publishes or sponsors a good many books dealing with various aspects of the Far East.

Other periodicals of value to high school teachers and students in Far Eastern studies are:

The Annals of the American Academy of

Political and Social Science (January, 1959, is devoted to "Contemporary China and the Chinese").

Foreign Affairs, quarterly review of the Council on Foreign Affairs.

International Affairs, quarterly of the Royal Institute of International Affairs (England).

Pacific Affairs, quarterly issued by the Institute of Pacific Relations.

American Heritage is sometimes a very useful student aid in oriental history, as, Charles H. P. Copeland, "To the Farthest Part of the Rich East (February, 1955)," and William Harlan Hale, "When Perry Unlocked the Gate of the Sun (April, 1958)."

¹ The kind of scholarship which is slowly and

steadily being produced is typified by Robert Wilson, *Genesis of the Meiji Government in Japan*, (University of California Press, 1957).

² Sometimes rendered as *yamato*, "mountain" and "gate."

³ Marco Polo (Yule-Cordier Edition), II, 243. See *Old South Leaflets*, No. 32, (Boston, n.d.), for a convenient reprint of Marco Polo's description of Japan.

⁴ Fred Greene, *The Far East*, (Rinehart, New York, 1957), pp. 82-83, for the dynasties.

⁵ Claude Buss, *The Far East*, (Macmillan, New York, 1955), pp. 38-39, for Chinese political attitudes.

⁶ See *Horizon*, (January, 1959), for a beautifully illustrated article on Angkor Wat, a ruin of the old Kmer capital in Cambodia.

⁷ See John Masters, *Bhowani Junction*, (Grosset, 1956), a novel of half caste India, and *Bugles and a Tiger*, (Viking, 1956), autobiographical description of the Gurkhas, British Nepalese troops; Rudyard Kipling, *Barrack Room Ballads*, *Under the Deodars*, and *Kim* for classic items on India in verse, short stories and novel, respectively; Thomas Carlyle, *Warren Hastings*, a superb essay on the clerk who almost subdued India.

⁸ See Hassan Hosny, *The Islamic Center in Washington, D. C.* (n. p., n. d.).

Thomas Cresap and the Conojacular War

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Boundary disputes among the English colonies in America were a common occurrence. Probably one of the most serious of these disagreements was between Pennsylvania and Maryland. This dispute originated shortly after William Penn came to America in 1682, and was not completely settled until 1769 after both Penn and Lord Baltimore, the proprietor of Maryland, were dead.

In order to understand this quarrel it will be necessary to picture the boundaries of the colonies involved. According to the original grant given to William Penn by Charles I of England, the southern boundary of the province of Pennsylvania was the fortieth parallel of north latitude. Likewise, according to the charter granted to Lord Baltimore the fortieth parallel of north latitude was the northern boundary of Maryland.

It would appear from these figures that there should have been no difficulty at all. However, such was not the case, as a further study of the situation will indicate. The exact position of the fortieth parallel had not been determined, although its general location was known, and inaccurate maps caused discrepancies.

The southeastern part of the colony of Pennsylvania was divided by the wide and somewhat turbulent Susquehanna River which constituted a rather formidable barrier to settlement before the establishment of ferry service across it by John Harris (at the present site of Harrisburg) in 1735. This river, flowing south, empties into the northern neck of the Chesapeake Bay at Havre de Grace, Maryland.

While still in England, William Penn had

convinced himself that the head of the Chesapeake Bay lay within the area of his grant. Upon arriving in this country, however, he soon discovered that the supposed position of the fortieth parallel was far north of the mouth of the Susquehanna River and the northern reaches of the Bay. This discovery was probably a great disappointment to him, but he was determined to secure an outlet to the bay which would not be under the control of his neighbors to the south.

In December of 1682 and again in May of 1683, William Penn and Lord Baltimore conferred. Lord Baltimore would make no suggestion other than that the terms of his charter be followed. He also insisted that the exact position of the fortieth parallel be determined by astronomical observations and scientific instruments. No agreement was reached at this time.

Before further talks were arranged, William Penn's friend, James II, was forced to leave his throne. It was soon apparent that his successors, William and Mary, were not too interested in colonial ventures by proprietors. Eventually, royal governors were appointed for both the colonies in the name of the Crown.

Although Penn's governmental powers were returned to him in the summer of 1694, the proceedings in the dispute slumped until after the death of the original parties. They were taken up some years later by the heirs of William Penn and the fifth Lord Baltimore.

From existing reports the sons of William Penn were slightly unscrupulous, for in 1732 Lord Baltimore signed an agreement which tricked him into losing a great deal of the territory rightfully his under the original grant. Supposedly, a falsified map accompanying the terms of agreement was used. Lord Baltimore, not being familiar with the territory and not bothering to verify the map with another map, agreed to the terms propounded by the Penns. It was agreed that the boundary should lie fifteen miles south of the southernmost part of the city of Philadelphia. The fortieth parallel mentioned as the boundary of both provinces, however, was north of colonial Philadelphia.

This agreement, although satisfactory to Lord Baltimore, was far from suitable to the provincial government of Maryland. It was particularly unsatisfactory to those inhabitants of Pennsylvania and Maryland who lived along the Susquehanna River.

The discord and distrust created by this unsatisfactory agreement is most easily exemplified by an account of the exploits of Thomas Cresap, a Maryland frontiersman. An Englishman by birth, Cresap was so devoted to the cause of Maryland that he earned for himself the name, "Maryland Monster." Cresap was shrewd, fearless, and determined to achieve his ends, regardless of the discomfort he caused to others in so doing.

Cresap first enters the narrative in the spring of 1730 when he moved with his family from Havre de Grace, Maryland, (at the south of the Susquehanna River) to a spot farther north along the west bank of the Susquehanna opposite the present-day town of Columbia, Pennsylvania. In a few years the site of his settlement was to be known as Wright's Ferry (now Wrightsville).

At this place the Maryland governor had given him a grant of five hundred acres. Probably his land was north of the fortieth parallel and actually in Pennsylvania, but Cresap believed that it was a part of Maryland. He set out to prove that the claims of the Penns were wrong and those of the Calverts were right. Becoming the leader in this crusade, Cresap caused all Pennsylvanians to believe him to be the chief cause of their difficulties. Perhaps he was, but fairly or unfairly, they directed their indignation toward him.

The series of conflicts which ensued are known historically as the "Conojacular War." This name doubtless comes from a tribe of Indians, although locally, the struggle is today called "Cresap's War." The sources indicate that "Cresap's War" refers to a much later scrap in which Cresap was involved, generally called "Dunmore's War."

After the claim was granted to him by Maryland, Cresap proceeded to establish and operate a ferry business across the Susque-

hanna. This flourishing business, however, competed with one operated by a Pennsylvanian. In October, 1730, two "passengers" Cresap was ferrying attempted to murder him while in the middle of the river. In the struggle which followed the boat overturned and Cresap escaped.

Cresap reported the incident to the Pennsylvania magistrate, Andrew Cornish, and later to Governor Ogle of Maryland. Ogle had a great deal of correspondence with Governor Gordon of Pennsylvania over the incident. No definite decision was reached, because it could not be determined whether the territory upon which the assault took place belonged to Pennsylvania or to Maryland.

Cresap's next encounter with Pennsylvania authority, on a November night in 1732, shows the rising ire of the Pennsylvanians. Everyone in Cresap's cabin was settled for the night when the stillness of the forest was broken by angry voices from the direction of the river. Cresap stepped outside to investigate. He noted several persons on the frozen river and among them was his friend, John Lowe. His inquiry as to the trouble received only a curse in reply. Later it was known that the real cause of the trouble was that Cresap and Lowe had been accused of killing cattle and horses which had been allowed to stray into Cresap's corn field from an adjoining clearing. This theory was upheld by a servant in Cresap's employ, Cornelius Comages.

The next major trouble took place on January 29, 1733. Shortly after dark a group of Pennsylvanians visited Cresap's cabin demanding admittance. Naturally, they were refused. Whereupon they threatened to burn the house, overturn it, and to hang the Marylander. After some time they did succeed in breaking down the door. Gunplay followed; one of John Lowe's children was killed, and several other individuals were injured.

The raid was a failure, for they did not capture Cresap. When questioned, the raiders stated that their mission was authorized by the Pennsylvania government. They were determined to imprison or hang any persons

who should settle on land under grants by the state of Maryland.

The next chapter in the struggle occurred when Cresap attempted to take some property belonging to a Pennsylvanian named John Hendrick and divide it among his own Marylanders. At the time this fight took place, Cresap was assisting a Marylander in building a cabin on the Hendrick land. The Lancaster County sheriff heard of this incident, and, together with some of the influential men of the vicinity (among them John Wright who later was to operate Wright's Ferry), decided to attempt the arrest of Cresap. Cresap was warned by his wife of the arrival of the Pennsylvanians and was thus able to avoid capture.

After apprehending eight of the workmen, the sheriff returned with them to the Lancaster jail. He left behind a group of men headed by William Linvill and Knoles Daunt, empowered with authority to arrest Cresap. These men went immediately to Cresap's cabin, but were unable to gain entrance. While Linvill attempted to persuade the defenders to surrender, Daunt tried to force the door. In doing so he was shot in the leg by one of the occupants of the house. After this, the door was left unguarded and the men were able to enter the house but were soon forced out, as the account says, "bruised and bloody." The Pennsylvanians asked for water and a candle to help in treating the wounded men. They were refused and abandoned their comrade. Daunt died, and his death caused Cresap no end of trouble in Maryland as well as Pennsylvania.

Cresap became a Maryland magistrate and the feuding continued. In early 1734 an armed sheriff of Baltimore County arrested John Hendrick and Joshua Minshal. Governor Gordon of Pennsylvania objected strenuously to Governor Ogle, and the correspondence which followed became increasingly bitter. At last a dispatch from Ogle demanded Cresap be brought to trial in Baltimore for the murder of Knoles Daunt. Ogle requested that Gordon send witnesses who could testify at the trial. Gordon refused and demanded that Cresap be turned over for trial in Penn-

sylvania where the crime took place. The correspondence between the two governors became more strained. Other issues confused the picture and no settlement was reached.

In September, 1736, the climax of the dispute was reached when Pennsylvania officials issued a warrant for the arrest of Cresap, but without bloodshed. On several occasions Lancaster County's sheriff, Samuel Smith, attempted to make the arrest. Meanwhile, the rumor had spread that some more land belonging to Pennsylvania German settlers was to be seized and that Cresap was back of the scheme. This perturbed the German settlers, and Smith decided that he could wait no longer. On November 24 he and a party of twenty-three armed men crossed the Susquehanna at daybreak and approached Cresap's house.

Their arrival was no surprise to Cresap, who had taken every means to defend the cabin for a siege. When they came close to the building and called to Cresap, Smith read the warrant for the arrest. The reply was one that you could expect from a man such as Cresap. Sheriff Smith has been quoted as saying that "Cresap, with several horrid oaths and most abusive language against the proprietor and people of Pennsylvania, answered that they should never have him until he was a corpse, and filling a glass of rum, he drank damnation to himself and all that were with him if ever he or they surrendered."

Sheriff Smith reasoned with Cresap. Then he attempted to divide the defenders by offering a reward and protection to any who would come to the side of the law. A few would have done so, but Cresap threatened to shoot anyone who left him. The defenders also refused to allow the women and children to come outside. The conversation was punctuated by exchanges of gunfire. One of Cresap's men escaped by climbing out of the chimney, but others refused to surrender to the Pennsylvanians on the grounds that they were in the employ of the Governor of Maryland.

Cresap cursed Pennsylvania to high heaven and warned that reinforcements would be on the way from Annapolis. Finally the shooting

started again, with the Pennsylvanians trying to break down the cabin door. Between shots the oaths of Cresap could be heard urging his men on. Later the sheriff said that Cresap's cursing was too much for the Pennsylvanians to bear! Whether this was the reason or not, the fact remains that a shed adjacent to the house was set on fire, and the fire soon spread to the house. In the fight that followed the rout from the burning building, several Pennsylvanians were shot, one Marylander killed, and Cresap was injured. Probably Cresap would have escaped if his boat had not been so securely tied; it was while unfastening it that he was finally captured.

Arriving in Lancaster, Cresap soon found himself the unwilling possessor of iron handcuffs, which he promptly raised above his head and brought with full force upon the head of the unfortunate blacksmith who fitted them. Such displays of rage availed him nothing, for he soon began the march to Philadelphia. Like the prophets of old, Cresap's fame had spread far and wide so that the doors, windows and streets of this largest of Pennsylvania cities were thronged with people eager for a glimpse of the "Maryland Monster."

Cresap enjoyed this feeling of importance. Turning to one of his guards he said, "Damn it, Aston, this is one of the prettiest towns in Maryland."

Shortly after his arrival in Philadelphia, authorities for Maryland attempted to have Cresap released and sent two lawyers to Philadelphia to contact the President of the Pennsylvania Council, James Logan. Logan claimed that the arrest was legal because it had taken place on Cresap's land which was in Pennsylvania. The debate which followed between the two councils was concerned over the territory in which Cresap lived, why Pennsylvania magistrates considered themselves authorized to enforce law in Maryland, and general charges that Cresap's reputation had been undermined by false charges. In other words, Cresap had done just what any man would do if his home were attacked. And now Pennsylvania called it murder!

At length the case came to the attention of

the Crown. Both Maryland and Pennsylvania were ordered to cease taking the matter into their own hands, and to stop any land grants in the region until the dispute could be settled in London. Maryland had already retaliated by ordering the arrest of Samuel Smith, Lancaster sheriff and a justice of the peace of the same county, for the burning of Cresap's house and the murder of the Marylander killed at the time of the arrest.

While Pennsylvania at first refused to release Cresap they soon had a change of heart when their guest made himself generally disagreeable. Cresap was asked to leave but refused to do so until he was released by order of the King in August, 1737. Returning to his former home along the Susquehanna, Cresap was reunited with his wife and children who had been cared for in his absence

by friendly Indians. Forced to start life anew because the King's decree of 1737 made it impossible for him to settle in the land already claimed by Pennsylvanians, Cresap migrated farther west into the Cumberland Valley near Hagerstown, Maryland. Thus ends the role of Thomas Cresap in the Pennsylvania-Maryland boundary dispute.

Two surveyors, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, finally settled the argument by the completion of the famous line in 1769, which bears their names. Without a doubt, there was a shade of truth in Cresap's remark made many years later that if Lord Baltimore "had attended to his own interests or regarded his own rights, his title to the city of Philadelphia certainly would have been good."

Social Sciences and their Methodology

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Social sciences are defined by the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences* as "those mental or cultural sciences which deal with the activities of the individual as a member of a group." From this, social sciences may be inferred as those bodies of scholarly materials which deal with man, his culture and his relationships with his environment. They are the product of research, thought, and experience. Thus, the social sciences, along with the natural sciences and the humanities, comprise the sum total of human pure (vs. applied) knowledge. There are, however, interrelations among all three of these areas of the curriculum which serve to accent the basic unity of learning. There is also no clear demarcation between the member disciplines within the above areas. Nor is there clear agreement upon the disciplines which should be included in the field of the social sciences. In addition to the four old disciplines of poli-

tics, economics, history and jurisprudence in Aristotle's time, the newer disciplines since Herbert Spencer, Auguste Comte and Wilhelm Wundt are sociology, psychology, anthropology, criminology, human geography, and perhaps education.

It has been urged, notably by the followers of Windelband and Rickert, that while physical science deals with abstract aspects of natural phenomena that can be definitely repeated, social science deals with events which are unique, and generally pertain to some particular historic state of human society. Thus the understanding of social phenomena requires a more extensive knowledge of the myriad institutional and historical backgrounds than is generally the case in physical science. With the greater complexity of social facts are connected (1) their less repeatable character, (2) their less direct observability, (3) their great variability and less uniform

ity, and (4) the great difficulty of isolating one factor at a time. Consequently agreement based on demonstration is less easy and actually less prevalent in the social than in the natural sciences.

Another factor contributing to the relative lack of agreement on a given issue among the social scientists is the fact that the social sciences come so close to the interests and everyday affairs of man that they are peculiarly apt to reflect the varieties of men's vested interests as well as the prevailing tendencies of the times. At the beginning of the twentieth century the need for social interpretations and investigations was growing more obvious and perhaps more imperative, and in response to it the social sciences were greatly expanding. But they were expanding in the directions and according to modes which the spirit of the age dictated. One great determinant was the triumph of the physical sciences. It was increasingly felt that the social sciences must follow the methods of exact measurement which distinguished the sciences of nature. True, the data of the social scientist were not so amenable to this treatment as were those of the physicist, but this was the misfortune of the former, to be overcome as far as possible by such substitutes for exact measurement as the devices of the statistical method. Social researches accordingly tended to deal with those aspects of the social structure which could be subjected to quantitative analysis. Economics, being in a favored position in this respect, represented the model which the rest endeavored to follow. Hence, the rise of econometrics, which is the use of advanced mathematics and statistics for studying economics. One also witnesses the increasing use of statistics as a research tool for students in sociology, in political science, in psychology and in education, etc.

The various disciplines of social sciences have outgrown their early separation and have increasingly realized their interpenetra-

tion. Each is gradually recognizing that it is primarily a social science and that this reciprocity enriches its own domain and deepens its own conclusions. It is, therefore, useful to make a few remarks about the methodology of social sciences, which is the single thread unifying its various disciplines. According to John Stuart Mill's *A System of Logic* (1843), "The Social Science is a deductive science . . . after the model of the more complex physical sciences. It infers the law of each effect from the laws of causation on which that effect depends . . . Its method, in short, is the Concrete Deductive Method." However, the imperfections of the *a priori* method are great, especially when applied to society with its numerous conflicting tendencies. But there is an appropriate remedy—*a posteriori* verification. To quote from W. Stanley Jevons' *Theory of Political Economy* (1871), "The deductive science of Economy must be verified and rendered useful by the purely inductive science of Statistics. Theory must be invested with the reality and life of fact." On the other hand, it is equally dangerous in the modern age of pragmatism to stress practical methods and facts without theorizing. Warned economist-statistician Harold Hoteling in *The Journal of the American Statistical Association* (1926), "The annual drilling of thousands of students in methods without theory is buttressed by the argument that theory is for specialists and that what the ordinary person needs is a good working knowledge of practical methods. The same argument would logically omit trigonometry but give college students generally a course in surveying, and replace psychology in the curriculum by salesmanship."

It is the writer's opinion that the progress of the social sciences in the future will depend in great part upon the investigation of empirical laws derived from statistics, which will then be compared with known theoretical laws, or will suggest derivation from them of new laws.

Teachers' Page

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"UNALTERABLE TRUTHS AND PREMISES" IN EDUCATION

In spite of the small beginnings in the use of televised instruction, teaching machines, and for a longer time, the use of visual education in the form of films and film strips, education has lagged far behind other areas in our American economy in adapting the various advances and discoveries in science and technology for improving the whole educational process. American education is bound to old and ancient concepts regarding its organization, curriculum, and methods of teaching which are outmoded and irrational. It's time for a change. This, in fact, is the theme of an article in the September 3, 1960 *Saturday Review*, by Alvin C. Eurich, vice-president and director of the Fund for the Advancement of Education.

In his preliminary analysis of education, as it now functions, Mr. Eurich asserts, regretfully, that "The improvement of education in the United States is nobody's special business."

Although Americans place a great deal of value on schooling and recognize the need for its continual improvement, little is being done in this direction. Evidence of this is our deficit of teachers and school buildings in the face of "unparalleled inventiveness and resources" in other areas of our economy. In consequence the "quality of instruction has inevitably suffered." New York City is cited as an example where about one-half of the teachers in the junior high schools do not meet the minimum standards for regular employment.

"... Its system is predicated on an era when jobs were scarce, when teachers were relatively well paid, when they had unusual security, and when there were at least three teachers for every position. Today, we are in an era when people in many other jobs are more highly paid, when they have an equal

amount of security, and when there are many more teaching positions than qualified personnel to fill them. And still we try to follow the same ground rules."

The quality of education on the college and university levels also falls short of acceptable standards. In the last five years, for example, the percentage of new college faculty members with a doctorate has declined to about 8 per cent. In the face of this, there is the impending increase in college enrollment. The "great American dream" of parents is to send their children to college. Surveys indicate that parents expect to send two-thirds of their children to college. Not all of them will, of course, realize this ambition, but, estimates indicate that the percentage of youth in college will triple during the next generation. The very increase in our youth population is another factor. In 5 years, 40 per cent more youngsters will be completing high school.

The following statement is very significant: "Clearly, our colleges will not be able to operate as usual. Even if we had the money to build in the future on the image of the past, we would not have the teaching personnel. Furthermore, we know that it is not enough merely to add more desks for students and to lengthen the day and the school year. With the quantitative formula we can only perpetuate mediocrity, or, even worse, slide back in quality."

Constructive changes necessitate, the author asserts, some instrument of state government that will have as its sole mission the "improvement of the educational system at all levels." In planning for better schools, we must adopt the same approach used, for example, by agriculture and industry. In 1888 it required one-half of our employed to produce the food for our nation. Today 8 per cent perform the same function, with enormous surpluses.

"... Where would we be today in agriculture without experimental stations and the extension services that carry the results of the investigations to our farmers?"

Similarly the phenomenal progress in industry and in medicine has been due to the expenditure of money in planning and experimentation and the utilization of their findings.

The state commission suggested by Mr. Eurich would obviously not follow a uniform pattern in each of the states.

"But in every case the commission should create an atmosphere in education which is comparable to that in agriculture, industry or medicine and should make it clear that each year we can and will do the job better."

The specific functions of such a commission would be:

1. to "re-examine the so-called unalterable truths—the generally accepted premises—on which we are now operating our educational system."
2. to "sponsor new experiments designed to provide higher quality education with due regard for efficiency and economy."
3. to "disseminate information about new developments not only within the state but throughout the country."
4. to "promote the adoption of such new developments as have been tried and found successful" and to "issue an annual report and recommend necessary legislation."
5. to "make grants to educational institutions for experiments designed to improve educational methods," from funds allotted to it from the state budget.

One of the premises in education that Mr. Eurich is questioning concerns student-teacher ratio with respect to effective instruction. Research, the author argues, places the burden of proof on the proponents of small classes.

"Students do as well on examinations, and in many cases better, if taught in larger classes by superior teachers."

The paramount factor in effective learning is the quality of the teacher. Better instruction results "when the teacher is given an

opportunity to use his special talents more widely than he can in the conventional classroom of stipulated size." Significant results have been evident in larger than usual class size experiments that have utilized teachers' assistants, team teaching, television, motion pictures, and even teaching machines.

The director of the Fund for the Advancement of Education asserts that he does not advocate the replacement of the teacher by television or by any other gadget.

"But I am concerned with the basic principle involved here, which is simply this: any device or arrangement that helps to communicate to the student effectively should be used. This necessitates new and different ways of using the talents of individuals."

Referring to the use of television in education, Mr. Eurich extols the achievements already accomplished. He cites the fact that to date over 30,000 students at Penn State University have been taught by television. Other colleges and universities have made similar use of televised instruction. The Continental Class in college physics, given by Professor Harvey White of the University of California demonstrates the effectiveness of quality teaching via television.

"The course included seven Nobel Prize-winners as lecturers; no one institution could have amassed such talent. Approximately 250 colleges and universities offered credit for this course on their own terms, administering their own examinations, and some 400,000 students regularly attended this first-rate physics course. At present the shortage of physics teachers is critical. But this very emergency stimulated a solution that resulted in superior instruction for a large number of students."

On the elementary and secondary school levels televised instruction is used by more than 600 school districts. The airborne televised instruction planned for next year beamed over several western states is expected to reach 5,000,000 pupils.

Evaluation of televised instruction leads to the conclusion that students learn as well by this new method as they do in the traditional classroom.

"The keystone of this new method is the teacher."

Another "unalterable truth" of education questioned by Mr. Eurich, "is that the number of years in school determines the student's educational attainment. This 'truth' has been repeatedly disproven. Tests have shown over and over that age and years spent in school are no measure of a student's academic attainment, that the best students in one college are no better than the poorest in another. In fact, high school seniors in some secondary schools are better educated than some of our college graduates. . . . To say a person is a college graduate is, under these conditions, quite meaningless. A degree confers no special competence."

In support of this argument is our own view that the true measures of an educated man are how much knowledge he has at his command, regardless of where, how and the number of years required to obtain it, and whether he is able to put this knowledge to constructive use.

Applying the above reasoning to the preparation of teachers, the author suggests greater reliance on passing comprehensive examinations in the subjects to be taught than upon the number of credits earned. Mr. Eurich also argues for less courses in education and methodology and more in the subjects to be taught.

A third area in need of reassessment is the curriculum.

"In attempting to adapt the curriculum to everybody, either by aiming for the average student and stifling the exceptional, or by offering such a wide diversity of courses that anyone may select an array of disjointed segments, we have fabricated a mosaic without a pattern, a program that is indefinable."

Fortunately in this area a number of experiments involving special programs for the talented have been initiated with promising results. It would seem that what we have to accept in this country is the realization that though we want to maintain the ideal of an education for everyone, not all boys and girls must be subjected to the same program nor at the same rate of progress. Whether the

answer is separate schools for the academically talented, or accelerated programs for them within a comprehensive high school, it is imperative that there be a distinctly differentiated curriculum for the academically talented. For the average and below average there must be a reevaluation of the educational goals and aims as well as methods of instruction. For at least 60 per cent of the secondary school population a diversified vocational program, along with work experience, should be the core of the educational program.

In conclusion, Mr. Eurich writes:

"The total effort in education must be concerned with the intelligent utilization of our teachers and any new means of communication that may stimulate and facilitate learning. We have ample resources — human, material and financial — to effect vast improvement in our educational program and to make its progress commensurate with other aspects of society . . . In this fast-moving world, our present set-up in education is inadequate. Antiquated techniques, antiquated customs and concepts have frozen and have acquired a sanctity beyond their merit . . . We must encourage a creative, restless, and positive concern for improving the quality of education so that each individual in this democratic society can become all that he is capable of being . . ."

In tune with the times, the *Saturday Review* inaugurated (September 17, 1960) a supplement to its regular features—a special monthly section dealing with great issues in American Education. The material will be prepared under the direction of The Fund for Advancement of Education in cooperation with the editors of *S. R.* In the introductory statement reference is made to H. G. Wells' often quoted statement about mankind's race between education and catastrophe. Education clearly no longer holds the lead.

". . . Catastrophe in two forms—nuclear weapons carried by guided missiles, and governments that blot out the freedom of men—appear to have pulled ahead."

In this same statement the authors (Paul Woodring and John Scanlon) question

whether the mere providing of more education, and requiring it of all, is enough. They cite the disturbing facts that many Germans who supported Hitler were graduates of universities and secondary schools considered among the world's best. Soviet citizens with far more schooling than citizens of the Czar "continue to support a government that restricts their liberties and threatens the peace of the world . . ."

And, in America, "A generation of young Americans boasting a record number of degrees and diplomas is frequently described as soft, bewildered, and lacking in purpose."

A decade ago, professor Robert Ulich of Harvard, stated:

"Prolongation of school age is in itself not a blessing, but may even be a curse to civilization unless there goes together with the prolongation a revolutionary rethinking of the total program and a restructuring of the total educational system from the secondary school upwards."

The first article in this *Saturday Review* supplement is entitled "Open minds and flexible schools." In it, the author, Arthur D. Morse, a staff producer of "CBS Reports," offers the same criticisms we discussed in the main portion of this month's "The Teachers' Page."

"The organization of youngsters into classroom groups of thirty-plus hardens the conventional school's rigidity. There appears to be no evidence that a fixed pupil-teacher ratio is ideal in all learning situations. The number of pupils who can benefit best from a lecture is quite different from the number who can participate effectively in a give-and-take session. Advanced lessons for gifted youngsters and remedial programs for slow learners illustrate the fallacy of rigid organizations. The caliber of the students, the quality of the teachers, and the nature of the subject matter would seem ideal criteria for class size. They rarely are."

Following are other educational practices that receive critical comments:

1. Rigidity of the traditional elementary classroom. Isolation of teachers behind closed doors.

"Rarely if ever, does she watch an outstanding teacher in action, though professionals in other fields draw inspiration from the work of their more gifted scholars. "It is but a short step from the closed door to the closed mind."

2. The mechanics of school operation dominate faculty meetings . . . while the substance of education is left to higher authority.
3. Staggering work-load of a teacher—spending almost one-fourth of her time on clerical chores. "The world she lives in has automated but the teacher fills out the same forms and slips, collects money for various benevolent causes and school services . . ."
4. Rigidity of curriculum.
"The world is dominated by change but the teacher is dominated by a relentless schedule that prohibits the reflection and study necessary to introduce change where it is most needed—in the curriculum."
5. The uniform salary scale which offers little or no recognition for the gifted and superior teachers.
"Good, bad, or indifferent, all teachers are paid alike . . . This is one intellectual battlefield where heights are dominated by mediocrity and longevity. The gifted teacher with enough human traits to desire higher salary and/or recognition must become an administrator or spend the summer as a soda jerk or as a member of the Teamsters Union."
6. Little or no time made available to high school teachers for preparation of lecture materials or reading and marking students' work. This problem is especially acute for the English teacher who wishes to assign creative writing at least once a week and thereby "faces the prospect of nightly toil after exhausting days."

In a tribute to the teachers and our schools, Mr. Morse points out that schools "do not function in a world apart from the societies in which they exist. To expect a standard of academic excellence, to demand an island of

unselfish endeavor in a sea of materialism is to ask the impossible."

Teachers are expected to "sacrifice every material convenience, every current symbol of success, as they attempt to inculcate in our overprivileged children the non-material values of the human spirit which set man apart from animals."

"It is a curious paradox that the schools which stimulate their students' interests in new technology are themselves archaic technologically and are loath to accept new techniques of communication."

However, breakthroughs in meeting some

of these problems in education have already been made, such as the use of mass education through television and the use of such teaching devices as language laboratories, tape recorders, film slides, overhead projectors that cast magnified images, and teaching machines.

In time, as teachers and administrators begin to realize the potential of these new ventures in teaching, the old rigidity and inflexibility will give way to new organizational units involving teams of teachers and class sizes that will vary with the subject taught, the caliber of the student, and the ability of the teacher.

Instructional Materials

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

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Man-Made Fibers Fact Book. Basic facts about man-made fiber industry are presented in this 32-page booklet. It also lists the major "fiber" trademarks. Available from Man-Made Fiber Producers Association, Inc., 350 Fifth Avenue, New York 1, New York.

Sociology and Anthropology. This listing of films related to these fields is available without charge from the Audio-Visual Aids Library, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pa.

Handbook. "Facts About the Civil War." Succinct and interesting information about the Civil War—the "firsts," "starting line-ups," battles and losses, and personalities. A chronology of the war reveals the events that will be commemorated. 20 pages. 25 cents. Civil War Centennial Commission, 700 Jackson Place, Washington 25, D. C.

FILMS

Modern Magazine Magic. 27 min. Color. Free loan. Modern Talking Picture Service Inc., 3 E. 54 St., New York 22, N. Y. The story behind the editing, production and distribution of big national magazines, in a visit to one of the world's most famous publishing plants.

The New Story of Milk. 27 min. Color. Free loan. Modern Talking Picture Service Inc. From the "early days" to automation in processing and packaging of milk—a history of the modern dairy industry, told by global reporter, Bob Considine.

For All Time. 28 min. Color. Free loan. Modern Talking Picture Service, Inc. Story of the first 100 years of a great insurance company, explaining its social contributions. Film also offers historical survey of America, with film clips and early drawings.

Lincoln Speaks For Himself. 28 min. Black and white. Sale. The Christophers, Inc., 18 E. 48 St., New York 7, N. Y. A portrayal of Lincoln based on his own speeches and letters as history records them. Presents him as a man and as a leader. Shows in each instance that it was his deep spiritual conviction that formed the basis for his greatness.

George Washington: Man and Myth. 30 min. Black and white. Sale/rental. NET Film Service, Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. Gives an insight into Washington's life, explaining how his activities as a young man prepared him for his position as Commander of the American Colonial Army and later as President. Relates some of the legends that have been recorded about him.

World War I: The Background. 13½ min. Sale. Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Ill. *World War I: The War Years*, 11 min. *World War I: Building the Peace*, 10 min. These films trace the background of one of the most destructive international conflicts that ever occurred. They show how the war was waged, and the major aspects of its outcome.

Understanding Others. 12 min. Black and white. Color. Sale. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Textfilm Dept., 330 W. 42 St., New York 36, N. Y. A plea to judge the other person for his true values, abilities, and net worth rather than by his economic background, poor social skills, and inability to be one of the group.

Of Human Rights. 20 min. Black and white. Sale. The United Nations, New York, N. Y. An incident involving racial and economic pressure among children is used to dramatize the importance of bringing to the attention of the peoples of the world their rights as human beings as set forth

in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, proclaimed by UN General Assembly on December 10, 1948.

FILMSTRIPS

Alaska—49th State. 40 fr. Color. Sale. Life Filmstrips, Time & Life Building, Rockefeller Center, New York 20, N. Y. From the frozen arctic tundra to the flower-filled Matanuska Valley, from the dreams of Peter the Great to the bonfire celebrations of Alaska's admission to the Union, this filmstrip tells the story of America's 49th State and the continent's last frontier.

Hawaii—50th State. 40 fr. Sale. Color. Life Filmstrips. A social, economic, and geographic history of the Islands from Capt. James Cook, King Kamehameha I and Queen Liliuokalani to Pres. Eisenhower signing the Statehood Proclamation.

Spotlight on Labor. 51 fr. Sale. Black and white. Office of Educational Activities, *The New York Times*, 229 W. 43 St., New York 36, N. Y. Examines the problems of automation and foreign competition in terms of an increasing population. It also assesses the strength of the AFL-CIO, the gains by union and non-union workers, and the prospective role of labor in the new Kennedy administration.

Popular Sovereignty—U. S. A. 42 fr. Black and white. Sale. Heritage Filmstrips, Inc. 89-11 63rd Drive, Rego Park 74, N. Y. Analyzes the efforts of our country to develop representative institutions of the most democratic kind. Discusses representative government, changes in our three branches of Federal government, nomination procedures, and other problems of popular control of government.

RECORDINGS

Ballads of the Civil War. Two 10" long playing records by the Folkway Records, 117 W. 46th St., New York 36, N. Y. Cost \$4.25. Folk and popular songs of the Union and Confederacy sung by Hermes Nye.

Songs of the War Between the States. Golden Record LP disc. \$3.98. Offers such well-known records as "John Brown's Body," "Dixie," "Battle Hymn of the Republic," "Goober Peas," etc. Francis C. Coughlin

gives the historical background of the songs.

Stories and Songs of the Civil War. Victor LP disc. \$1.98. Narrated by Ralph Belamy. Includes such popular songs as "Tenting on the Old Camp Ground," "When Johnny Comes Marching Home," "The Battle Cry of Freedom," "Yellow Rose of Texas," "Maryland, My Maryland," and "Dixieland." Between songs are stories about leaders on both sides.

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fully performed by Richard Bales and the National Gallery Orchestra, soloists, and choir. Also contains more than 200 photographs and 60 pages of text.

TELEVISION

The Americans. NBC Television Network, Mondays, 7:30-8:30 p.m., EST. A full hour, filmed weekly-drama series set against an historically authentic Civil War backdrop. The initial program began on Jan. 23, 1961. It re-created the destruction of the Union arsenal at Harpers Ferry which divided the Canfield family and erupted into the bloody conflict of the Civil War. Henry Steele Commager serves as the historical consultant for the series.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Politics Among Nations. By Hans J. Morgenthau. Third Edition. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1960. Pp. xxiii, 630. \$7.00.

The third edition of this well-known and widely used textbook in International Relations and International Politics contains a number of revisions. The author has expanded especially his discussion of political ideologies and has added a section on the theory of alliances and the balance of power, and the chapter on the United Nations has been rewritten; other sections have been shortened. Basically, however, this is still the book of the second edition of 1954.

When the first edition of this important work appeared in 1948, it was acclaimed as making a distinct contribution to, as being a landmark in the study of international relations; on the other hand, it also elicited criticism and even misgivings. It has retained its strong points and also some weaker ones. More ambitious than many of the more descriptive studies in the field, it offers a theory which gives system and unity to the field of

international politics. Simultaneously, there is a keen perception of the issues and forces in international affairs; the section on balance of power is exceptionally good. The author's point-of-view is such as to avoid playing favors with one nationality or any group of them or having pet enemies, since all nations are driven by the same forces—though not at the same time or with the same intensity—namely the desire to extend their own power, to improve their power status as compared with their neighbors and potentially hostile nations. The author is deeply skeptical therefore in regard to political ideology as a genuine motivating force of nations, tending to look upon political ideas, whatever their content, as mere cloaks in the eternal game of states to increase their power. Therefore he is unwilling to look upon the East-West struggle as one between evil and good; he is unlikely to be misled by any nation's propensity to range itself on the side of the angels, of right and justice. The author's seeming "neutrality" is a

healthy and useful counterweight to our national and ideological prejudices, and tends to lift the study of international politics to a less biased and more truly scientific level.

In the words of one critic, Morgenthau's work brought "Macchiavelli up-to-date." Power is indeed one of the major concepts around which the book is organized. A "political realist"—the school of thought in which the author counts himself—finds his way through the jungle of international politics with the aid of a simple but reliable compass, the "concept of interest defined in terms of power." It is the drive to power which moves the nations, and international politics appears thus as a struggle for power, though domestic politics manifests the same trends and tendencies. "All politics reveals three basic patterns," namely "to keep power, to increase power, or to demonstrate power" (39). Three different policies correspond to these three varying patterns; the policy of the status quo, the policy of imperialism, which aims at a favorable change of the balance of power, and the policy of prestige.

It is the concept of imperialism, central to his work, which in the opinion of this reviewer forms a weak link in the author's armor. A power merely preserving its empire—though it is the legacy of past expansionist drives—is, according to the author's definition, not imperialist! Great Britain, for instance, in the late 19th and early 20th centuries was not imperialistic, since she was conservative and static, consolidating rather than expanding; basically, she was then pursuing a "policy of the status quo" (46). The inadequacy of a definition of imperialism which, while stressing only current aggressiveness, condones or ignores domination established long ago, the overthrow of a past status quo, seems to need little further elaboration. Carrying this theory to its logical conclusion and applying it, for instance, to Soviet-dominated Eastern Europe today, the United States, if bent on the "liberation" of the East European satellites from the grip of the U.S.S.R., would be motivated by the desire to bring about a change in the present

balance of power, which would be favorable to herself. She would thus be a disturber of the current status quo, as established by Soviet Russia after the Second World War; by the author's definition, the U.S., even though not replacing Russian control in the area with her own, but merely wresting it from Russian hands, would be imperialist! The U.S.S.R., on the other hand, by defending the status quo in Eastern Europe, her domination in that area, would be "conservative," not engaged in aggressive expansion. Of course, Soviet Russia in truly imperialist fashion—even following the author's own definition—imposed her own control over these regions not so long ago and radically upset the status quo in the area.

It is, the author holds, a most urgent but admittedly most difficult task (68f., 96-97), even for the discerning statesmen and a politically keen and vigilant nation, to detect imperialism on the international horizon and to distinguish in particular in the initial stages—when counteraction is still possible—between an imperialism of strictly localized, limited ambition, or one aiming at continental hegemony, and the one the eyes of which span the entire globe, having world domination as goal.

While the author stresses that "political realism" was based upon a "pluralistic conception" of human nature, that real man was a "composite" of "economic man," "political man," "moral man," "religious man," etc. (14), man appears throughout his work almost exclusively as "political man," and the author's obvious tendency is to exaggerate the individual's and the nation's preoccupation with all aspects of power, at the expense of other desires. The following statement seems to be indicative of this tendency: "What the precapitalist imperialist, capitalist imperialist, and 'imperialistic' capitalist want is power, not economic gain" (51); yet this clearly one-sided statement is one of the assumptions upon which the author's entire theoretical structure rests. Economics, to single out one of many non-"political" factors, is not only often definitely subordinated to politics, but sometimes virtually excluded,

as also in his reference to the causes of numerous wars of the 19th and 20th centuries, and of the two World Wars in particular. The latter are said to have had economic consequences, but not economic motives (50). Imperialism avails itself of the means of economic control, but the latter is only a method, "never the objective of imperialism" (58). Its goal, the very essence of imperialism, is merely "the overthrow of the status quo by changing the power relations between the imperialist and other nations"; there is no economic forethought or afterthought.

In some respects the book has not been brought up-to-date as the author's references to Soviet Russia's industrial "weakness" (110) and to Britain's navy being second only to that of the United States (144) demonstrate.

National power is limited in numerous ways. It is limited by opposing powers and power blocs, and also by international morality, world public opinion, and international law. Yet, on the whole, the author is deeply skeptical in regard to these latter forces, and also concerning international organization, and the capacity of the United Nations in particular, to solve the pressing basic problems of our age. This pessimism may explain his relatively brief discussion of the U.N. It is only fitting that he concludes his work with the chapter "The Problem of Peace in the Mid-Twentieth Century. Peace Through Accommodation," a discussion of diplomacy in general. He ends by making specific, and sound, suggestions for a revival of genuine diplomacy.

In spite of the foregoing criticism, there can be no doubt that this is a major and thought-provoking work in the field, pioneering in some respects, and one with the underlying philosophy and basic ideas with which the advanced student of International Politics ought to come to grips.

ALFRED D. LOW

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Youngstown, Ohio

The Nation on the Flying Trapeze; The United States as the People of the East

See Us. By James Saxon Childers. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. 284. \$4.50.

Mr. Childers is a newspaperman, editor, teacher, publisher and an author of novels, articles and travel books. On four previous occasions he has traveled to far points in the world and written books about his experiences. On the trip he describes in this book, he went through the Far East and India, where he served as a Specialist in the International Exchange Program of the Department of State, lecturing at universities to newspapermen, writers and students, and to local leaders at Rotary Clubs everywhere he stopped.

The book is interesting and entertaining, as the experiences of a knowledgeable and discerning traveler usually are. But mixed with the local color Mr. Childers found evidence of the contest between the United States and the Soviet Union for the loyalties of a major part of the world's population. He was disturbed by what he saw because it seemed to him that the United States was failing to take advantage of the many opportunities its wealth and reputation gave to it. Mr. Childers heard criticism of the United States wherever he went. In many places he found it unfair criticism which could have been and still can be rebutted by better trained and wiser foreign representatives and a more skillful use of American resources sent abroad.

Part of the United States' failure was the failure of the State Department to train men adequately for the difficult tasks facing them and its failure to utilize sources of information open to it. I suspect that in large measure Mr. Childers' decision to write this book originated in the peremptory way in which the State Department checked him in at the end of nine months of travel through troubled peoples without ever asking for his evaluation of the experience.

Another more important part of the failure of the United States is the complacency and self satisfaction of the American people as we all seek our own selfish advantage. Mr. Childers urges a realization by the people of

the United States of the peril they face from the challenge of communism. It was not by coincidence that Mr. Childers closed his journey and his book going through Athens, Rome, Paris and London, where he was particularly struck by the mute testimony of past glory. Implicitly he asks; will it be the future of the United States to live on past glory, or will we face the challenge of the communists and move forward to even greater glories?

LEONARD F. RALSTON

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Class and Class Conflict in Industrial Society.

By Ralf Dahrendorf. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1959. Pp. 336. \$6.50.

Historians, it may be generalized, are skeptical of generalization. Events in history seem to historians to possess a certain uniqueness which makes "laws of history" forced, artificial, and invalid. Meanwhile, the economists, anthropologists, and sociologists like Dahrendorf are working tirelessly toward a social science capable of establishing general truths.

In this book Dahrendorf consciously attempts to conduct his investigations in the scientific spirit. "I cannot see why," he writes in the preface, "it should not be at least desirable to try to free sociology of the double fetters of an idiographic historical and a meta-empirical philosophical orientation and weld it into an exact social science with precisely—ideally, of course, mathematically—formulated postulates, theoretical models, and testable laws." The result of this orientation is a work which is rich in generalization—generalization based on painstaking thoroughness in consideration of empirical data and previous theory, and generalization which retains its validity in spite of the uniqueness of various industrial societies.

In a sense, this book may be said to be a critique of Marxian theory of class and class conflict in light of the subsequent developments in capitalistic economies since Marx's

day, such as the rise of the powerful trade union movement and the rising standard of living of the working class. Dahrendorf argues that the rise of the union movement has decreased the violence of class conflict because both labor and capital accept the framework of the society and tend to operate by observing certain "rules of the game." Strikes and press campaigns are expected and legitimate aspects of class conflict—insurrection is not. Thus he generalizes, "The violence of class conflict decreases to the extent that the conditions of class organization are present" and "The violence of class conflict decreases if absolute deprivation of rewards and facilities on the part of a subjugated class gives way to relative deprivation." (p. 239)

Thus, this book is useful in analyzing and understanding class conflict in advanced industrial countries such as the United States, England, France, Canada, etc.

The major shortcoming of Dahrendorf's theory, it seems to me, is the tacit assumption that the class conflicts in these societies have achieved a static sort of pattern which is not likely to be subject to radical changes. If each of these societies operated in a vacuum, such an assumption might be well-taken. But the rising nationalisms of Asia and Africa are bound to have a powerful impact on the advanced countries. Dahrendorf has shown in this work—in masterly fashion—that valid generalization about human society is possible. But we must not become so enamoured of our valid generalizations that we don't like to let them go. Generalizations about human society are likely to be quite tentative; the descriptions of conflict in the industrial societies of today may be quite different from class conflict in the industrial societies of tomorrow—societies challenged by Communism, Castroism, automation, etc.

It is the history students, I believe, who have the best feeling for the broad trends of historical forces through time and the mutual influences of human societies upon each other on a global scale. Thus, the sociologists should learn from the historians a sense of

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what Heilbroner calls the grand dynamic of history's forces—but the historians should learn from the sociologists a hunger for generalization.

SYDNEY SPIEGEL

Senior High School
Cheyenne, Wyoming

The Idea of Continental Union. By Donald F. Warner. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky Press, 1960. Pp. ix, 276. \$5.00.

With this work, Professor Warner became the first winner of a new award established by the Mississippi Valley Historical Association for the encouragement of historical research and writing. With it also, he has made a significant contribution to historical literature in the field of Canadian-American relations. *The Idea of Continental Union* is a study of the movement for annexation to the United States which came to the fore in Canada at frequent intervals during

the last century, not without some help from sources south of the border. Dr. Warner has concentrated upon the latter part of the nineteenth century, when the annexationist activity was most abundant, though he also treats of the birth and death of the movement, both of which fall outside of his central period of study.

There were, apparently, many strong arguments for the political union of the two English-speaking nations of North America. The political division of the portion of the continent held by the two was in many ways unnatural; a putting asunder of what God had joined together. And often some Canadians, contrasting the sluggishness of their own economy in the nineteenth century with the booming growth of the United States, sighed for annexation as the solution of their problems. This attitude was reinforced in the minds of some by the apparent indifference towards empire which prevailed in Britain, and by the support given such long-

ings by interested groups in the United States. But annexationism was largely the product of economic forces. It flared up in times of economic distress; it withered during periods when economic growth poured its benisons over the land.

If the forces contributing to annexation activity were economic, the opposing attitudes were grounded largely in emotion and sentiment. At first these attitudes were chiefly those of imperial loyalty and dislike of the bumptious democracy to the south. Later they were grounded in a quiet pride in Canadian achievements, in the growth of a Canadian nationalism. This latter was in the long run to give the coup de grace to the annexationist cause.

Any study of such a movement as this is bound, perhaps, to exaggerate its significance. Annexation never won mass support in Canada. No political party adopted it as a cause; no major political leader ever championed it on the hustings. Yet for all of this, it certainly made its contribution to the shaping of Canadian destiny. For Canada, there was always another choice available than either a premature and fragile independence, which some would have liked to see her assume, or prolonged subordination to London. Britons and Canadians were both aware of this. It conditioned their relationship, and it contributed to the emergence of the concept of commonwealth.

DONALD C. GORDON

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

The Good Years, from 1900 to the First World War. By Walter Lord. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960. Pp. xvi, 369. \$5.00.

The Good Years is a vivid account of the confident America as it ushered in a new age at the dawn of the twentieth century. The popular optimism sprang not from peace, but from the idea that "whatever the trouble, the people were sure they could fix it." Throughout the work the source of this outlook is described as the exuberance of ideas

and energy of the plain people, and the leadership of McKinley, Roosevelt, and Wilson. The volume terminates with the death of the Progressive Era and the commencement of World War I, for "as the simple problems vanished so did the simple solutions. Trust-busting, direct primaries, arbitration, treaties, and all the rest. They somehow lost their glamour as exciting panaceas, and nothing took their place."

Lord's book has wide scope, but he is also to be commended for his searching ability to give intimate detail of some of the major events of those years. His account of such incidents as the McKinley assassination, with pictures and sketches, makes his contribution extremely interesting and in some respects original. Although limited space does not permit an equitable treatment of all events, the depth of choice of material certainly gives the flavor of the times.

To the one who is looking for a panoramic view of these years, this volume is of outstanding utility. The American abroad; the inventions of pundits and social historians; the advent of the automobile, motion picture, and the airplane; the struggle of the suffragettes; the rebuilding of San Francisco; and the problem of child labor, all are enclosed descriptively within the work.

Probably the one factor which is disappointing to the scholar lies in the failure on the part of the author to use footnotes. This work could really have been a contribution to scholarship if the above had been done. Although the author has given the sources at the end of each chapter, this will not satiate the scholar's inquiry for exacting detail.

FRANK T. ARONE

Teaneck High School
Teaneck, New Jersey

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Historical Non-Fiction. Compiled by Hannah Logasa. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: McKinley Publishing Company, 1960. Pp. 288. \$6.50.

(Continued from page 82)

mind with another. Let the efficiency experts beware of how far they go in erecting barriers against this delicate and irreplaceable process. Somehow the thought of Johnny gaining his cultural heritage by gleefully pushing buttons to make lights flash in a machine troubles us. We suspect that at some point it will register "Tilt!"

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